The Nation.

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The Week.

While the terms of the Anglo-Japanese treaty had been pretty fully disclosed, in one way and another, their official publication entire last week revealed the fact that the alliance is more sweeping than had been supposed. It covers not merely "Eastern Asia and India," but the whole world. Article 2 provides that if either Japan or Great Britain becomes involved in war "in defence of its territorial rights or special interests," the other "will at once come to the assistance of its ally." This is as broad as words could make it. If England goes to war with Germany, she can call the Japanese to arms. If Japan drifts into hostilities with France, the British *entente* with that country will at once be abandoned for war. Now nothing is clearer than that the nation having the greatest number of points of contact with the rest of the world will chiefly have the call on its ally. In other words, Japan is far more likely than England to be drawn into hostilities as a result of this agreement, which is an aggravated example of the (organized) sympathetic strike. Its two bases are hostility to Russia, which is really far stronger in England than in Japan—as much, one might say, as Sebastopol is further in the background than Mukden; and the calculation of world control by the union of two irresistible sea powers. Here again it is manifest that the charge for keeping up her navy will be proportionately much heavier on Japan than on England. We cannot think this for the good of Japan or of mankind. The treaty explicitly safeguards the integrity of China and equal opportunities to all nations for trade. By so much it is surely wise and humane.

Lord Lansdowne published his Japanned *Pax Britannica* with a well-assumed air of giving universal satisfaction, even to Russia and Germany; but the news from Berlin and St. Petersburg shows that a league for war may always be met by another, if it does not actually provoke it. The German press is exasperated, the Russians are both amazed and angry, and it is plain that a rival combination of Powers will be formed if possible. Meantime, in an announcement that an Anglo-Japanese shipping corporation has been formed, with a capital of $25,000,000, to control the carrying trade of the Orient, we have a hint of the commercial interests that have all the while lain behind the war. It has been steamers against railroads—the English and Japanese investment in shipping versus Russian investment in the Trans-Siberian. The battle has gone for the ships, thus far; but if they for long cripple the railroad in its natural business, it will be the first time in the history of modern industrialism that such a thing has been done.

Militarism always finds new reasons for crying give, and the fact that the Anglo-Japanese alliance is so confidently said to guarantee the peace of the world—especially in the Orient—will nowhere diminish the demand for armaments and money to pay for them. We have already had a fair test of this, so far as England and India are concerned. The defence of the Indian frontier against a possible Russian attack has been the reason given for the military burdens laid upon Indian taxpayers without their being consulted. Yet when, during the discussion of the last Indian budget in the Commons, Premier Balfour was asked if the extinction of the Russian navy and the practical paralysis of the Russian army did not justify a reduction in the credits asked for military purposes, he was distinctly cold to the suggestion. That was a matter for the army experts, and he had heard nothing from them. It was better to go upon the old assumptions. So the Government has, in fact, done, even straining things to the breaking-point in giving Gen. Kitchener a free hand to make ready for an army that will never come. Similarly to-day the jubilations over the stroke of diplomacy which has allied Japan and England, and placed either beyond the possibility of attack, will not lead to the abatement of a single military demand. Only leave it to the experts, and nations never are, but always to be, safe.

One result of the Taft party's trip to the Philippines is that nobody speaks any longer of the Filipino desire for continued American rule. It clears the air to get rid of the notion that the islanders would not let us withdraw our beneficent sway even if we wanted to; but, on the other hand, the new doctrine leads us up a logical blind alley. The younger men of education, says the Secretary, are the ones who have been advocating immediate independence. How is this to be met? By educating more young men. So the hope of contented quiet in the archipelago is virtually given up for "at least a generation." Mr. Taft's frankness in the discussion of insular problems has always been praiseworthy. The high expense of government there which impressed other members of the party and is invariably commented upon by students of colonial problems, is, he says, gradually being reduced, which is good news, though the saving be small. "Filipinos," moreover, "are being introduced very rapidly to the places of Americans," presumably at smaller salaries, which is one way of saving. These things, of course, had no connection with the Congressional excursion. Whether that has accomplished real good must depend on Congressional action next winter. The Philippine Government, poor as it is, was made to pay the travelling expenses of the sightseers, as is the good old precedent for countries that own colonies. Yet if the members of the party act as liberally as they talk in their home-coming interviews, it may have been a good investment.

We hope that the dignity and sovereignty of the mighty Republic of Panama will be duly safeguarded in the plan to make her pay Colombia $1,000,000. The negotiations are on foot in Washington, not in Colón. This of itself looks like a slight, yet the Panamans do not appear to be haughtily sensitive on that point. Having sold their country to the United States, we presume that they think it proper that all further money transactions affecting its status should be conducted by or near the real owner. But what is the $1,000,000 to be paid for? Surely, the plea that Colombia "needs the money" is not a sufficient reason. There is talk about Panama being bound to meet her share of Colombia's foreign debt, incurred before the glorious movement for the independence of Panama, carried through by bribed soldiers; but we have seen this alleged obligation completely disposed of by able American journalists, on grounds of morals, international law, and the indefeasible right of the stronger. To say that it will be wise of the Panamans to pay Colombia rather than contest the legality of her claims, seems to us unworthy of a republic which has an army whose commanding general cannot be bought for less than $8,000. It is high time that there were an indignant cry on the Isthmus: "Millions for bribery, but not a cent for our just debts."

Secretary Shaw made another of his triumphant defences of protection at Richmond on Monday night. He showed that the tariff cannot be revised, because it is such a consummate product of logrolling. Its graft being distributed to every one politically powerful enough to demand a portion, "all interests are protected"; consequently, nobody with sufficient influence to elect delegates or control Congressmen makes any objection—the silly and unorganized consumers and taxpayers being, of course, worth

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the attention of no politician who knows his business. Moreover, if any one in the greedy combination takes it into his head to protest against another's undue share of the spoils, he is silenced by being reminded that one brick out of the tariff arch makes the whole thing tumble, and that his own plunder will be taken away if he insists upon that of others being abandoned or lessened. This, we submit, is a fair account of Secretary Shaw's victorious illustration. He said that he had heard an ex-Governor of Florida speak about reforming "the iniquitous tariff," and had shut him up by asking if he wished to begin by repealing the duties on citrus fruits. That is, if as many as possible are let in on the ground floor of a profitable iniquity, it becomes a great national virtue and blessing.

"Deliver us from another period of low prices," exclaimed Secretary Shaw just about a year ago. We supposed that to be pretty sound Republican doctrine, and we are amazed to see the thoughtless, almost flippant way in which his colleague, Mr. Wilson, announces that the coming winter will see lower prices for agricultural products. He ought to make the admission with bowed head. Are not wheat, corn, beef, pork, butter, eggs, and poultry the very things his beloved farmers produce? And this expression, "the relief of the householder"—what does that mean? What does the householder want of relief? As the Bureau of Labor, half a mile from Secretary Wilson's office, showed last year beyond all cavil, the householder is making money considerably faster than he can spend it. Anyhow, why think of him at all in his capacity as a consumer? Party orators have often explained that every one but the loafer is a producer. He makes harvesting machinery, or clothing, or canned goods, or nails, or pine boards, or wire fencing, and gets even by selling these back to the farmer at excessive prices. "I don't know much about the tariff," Secretary Wilson once declared, "but I am a protectionist." His latest interview tends to contradict both statements.

The Government hires its men for all departments through a single agency. Why should it not buy its supplies in the same way? That is the simple argument for the plan now being considered by the President, for establishing a single Government purchasing depot here in New York. The Keep Commission has discovered that the various branches of the Government have paid all manner of different prices for identical supplies, according to the volume of their purchases. It is an obvious economy to secure carload rates for the bureau that has hitherto been buying by the hundredweight. It is explained in advance of the submission of the new plan to Congress, that most of the Government supplies are already bought from New York houses. Congressional logic might see in this, to be sure, an argument for passing the good things around rather than for consolidation. The location of warehouses and departmental purchasing depots has not in the past been entirely independent of political influences. This objection has been partly anticipated by the suggestion that it is easy for any Western house to establish a New York branch, and, of course, the reformed system would not remove any of the existing safeguards. Should the scheme eventually be put in practice, one result that can be safely predicted is the establishment of a cordon of "constructive" New York offices for distant firms around that of the Government purchasing agent.

The conviction of Representative Williamson of Oregon for complicity in land frauds adds another to the list of notable victims of the reawakened conscience of the officials in charge of public lands. When Senator Mitchell fell before the Government prosecutor several months ago, it was seen that the matter had passed the point where knowing the judge or being "solid" with the jury was worth more than a backing in law. Testifying in this third trial —the previous trials having resulted in a disagreement—Dr. Gesner, one of the three defendants, said that he had merely tried to protect his range. He had gone to Biggs—Marion R. Biggs, another defendant, and formerly a United States land commissioner—for advice. The advice was that, while he could not buy outright the claims surrounding his range, he could loan money on them and take mortgages therefor. Of course, this was a mere technical evasion; as was shown by a witness's testimony to the effect that Dr. Gesner "was looking for 100 men to take timber claims for him," and that the witness had visited a shearing camp "where he had met a crowd waiting to see Gesner." The trial brought out once more facts that have been known all over the West concerning the reckless misuse of public lands. It showed, too, how hard it is even now to convince a jury that "stealing from the Government," whether of land, timber, or mineral, is a punishable offence. Whatever comes of the appeal already taken in Senator Mitchell's case and undoubtedly contemplated in the case of Williamson, Gesner, and Biggs, the Interior Department has scored a moral victory that will be exceedingly valuable as a deterrent.

Gov. Higgins is confronted by an open scandal in the Charities Department. Fiscal Supervisor Bender is resisting, with all the wiles of conscious guilt, the attempt of the State Civil Service Commission to bring him to book for violating the law. It was charged that Bender collected campaign assessments from his subordinates. He was to have had a hearing on September 14, when he was suddenly seized with Constitutional scruples about the power of the Commission to investigate him. The matter was accordingly referred to the Attorney-General for an opinion. He gave it in due time, completely upholding the right of the Commission to "continue the investigation pending." But did Bender acquiesce? Not he. He slipped off to Hudson and got a restraining order, returnable October 7. His obvious intention is to fight the thing all the way through up to the Court of Appeals, until his misdeeds shall have been forgotten or he himself shall be safely out of office. But what is the Governor going to say to this extraordinary performance? Will he allow a subordinate, charged with violations of the statute, to twist and squirm and double like a criminal, and to take advantage of every legal technicality to stave off an honest answer to the question whether he is a knave in office? This matter transcends mere niceties of legal interpretation. Without waiting for the courts of last resort to decide whether the Commission has the power to compel Bender, the Governor can instantly order him to answer.

Sober second thoughts on the subject of endorsing Jerome are evidently at work in the heads of party leaders on both sides. At first, they were chuckling over having so neatly disposed of the man who had defied the bosses. He could get on without them, could he? Well, he would see. But just now the question which is alarming them is, "Can we get on without him?" What they clearly perceive is that he is the only man before the people who awakens a particle of enthusiasm. Voters are flocking to sign his petition. Already more than 20,000 names have been attached to it, of rich and poor, high and low, Republicans, Democrats, Mugwumps. Is not such a political phenomenon deserving of attention even from party autocrats? What are they going to say to their own minor candidates who are imploring them to put Jerome on the ticket so that they may have some chance of floating through on his popularity? His impending flood of votes is not to be despised from the point of view of the most cold-blooded politics. And no one, we imagine, is any longer deluded by the cry that one party cannot endorse Jerome without a pledge from him that he will reject the support of the other.

Mr. Wheeler H. Peckham's death, long known to his friends (and to himself)

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to be imminent, removes one of a type that has undeniably grown rarer in recent years, but that we can ill spare. He might, in fact, have stood as the representative of that class of Americans whom Mr. Bryce, on his recent visit to this country, regretted to find smaller than when he first knew us. We mean the eminent lawyers who were also eminent in public spirit; who applied their special knowledge to the great problems of our political life, and were ever ready to lead their fellow-citizens in any crisis of reform. Mr. Peckham was such a man. Never was he wanting when pernicious doctrines or scoundrelly politicians were to be attacked. His unbending integrity and plainness of speech brought him the high tribute of the enmity of men like David B. Hill, and cost him the Supreme Court justiceship to which Mr. Cleveland nominated him; but it may well be that, in private station, he did the State more service than he could have rendered on the bench. To have a man ever at hand whose life and speech were a rebuke to all things base, and a whip to rogues, was a true measure of Mr. Peckham's value as a citizen.

No one, except perhaps President John A. McCall of the New York Life, will be surprised to learn that "Judge" Andrew Hamilton is employed as legislative agent by all three of the big insurance companies. Mr. Hamilton, as the investigators discovered, now has $235,000 of the money of the New York Life. For this he has rendered no accounting, but President McCall is sure the fund has been or will be properly expended—say, in purchases of real estate for the company or in "legal expenses." On Friday the committee of the Legislature found out that the Equitable and the Mutual have such implicit confidence in Mr. Hamilton's integrity and discretion as a persuader of lawmakers that they, too, have entrusted him with large sums for disbursement without accounting. Whenever a legislature takes up the insurance laws, Hamilton is on hand to guide the members in the right path. As Alfred W. Mayne, associate auditor of the Equitable, euphemistically put it, the business of a legislative agent is to look out that "nothing inimical to the policyholders' interest is passed." Mr. Mayne, like President McCall, was indignant at the intimation that such an agent might exert improper influence. The legislative agent of an insurance company, as we gather from the testimony, always wins his laurels by moral suasion. We would, however, point out to the guileless managers of big insurance companies that the existence of their alert and well-provisioned lobby might be a temptation to venal legislators. A few of the representatives who meet at Albany, Trenton, or Harrisburg might imagine that if they introduced "strike" bills often enough and refused to be convinced by pure logic, the arguments would become more tangible. This we suggest as a mere possibility. Hamilton, vouched for by all three companies, would firmly resist every demand for a bribe; but paragons of virtue like Hamilton cannot live forever.

On December 28, 1896, Gov. Charles A. Culberson, now United States Senator from Texas, wrote to Mr. McCall for a sworn statement, telling, among other things, "the amount, if any, paid by or on behalf of the company for political purposes during the last campaign." Mr. McCall did not commit perjury. The unpleasant questions were turned over to subordinates. One of the affidavits returned to Gov. Culberson reads as follows:

> "Theo. M. Banta, cashier of the New York Life Insurance Company, being duly sworn, deposes and says, that all payments, except such as are made at the branch offices, pass through his department, and that to the best of his information, knowledge, and belief no moneys were, directly or indirectly, paid by the company to the Republican campaign fund during the Presidential election [1896]."

Hugh S. Thompson, comptroller of the company, and John C. Whitney, auditor, made similar depositions. Mr. McCall had not, in 1896, experienced a change of view on the subject of campaign contributions, for he gave away policyholders' money in 1900 and 1904. His want of boldness and frankness is therefore amazing, not to say painful. Instead of shuffling and allowing his cashier, comptroller, and auditor to deceive the Governor of Texas, he should have admitted proudly that he gave $50,000 to defeat Bryan.

President McCall now notifies his agents by circular that never again will the company contribute "to any political organization for any purpose whatever"; and, in order to avoid mistakes, he will ask the trustees to pass a resolution. Policyholders will find it a little hard to reconcile this announcement with President McCall's hearty defence of his gifts to the Republican National Committee; a few days ago he was fully convinced of the wisdom of his course. To be sure, he explains his present attitude by saying that "the gold standard has been irrevocably adopted. Therefore the question of similar contributions cannot arise again during this or any subsequent administration of the New York Life." But it may easily happen in the exigencies of politics that issues as vital to the policyholders as the gold standard itself may come to the arbitrament of the ballot-box. In that case Mr. McCall (or his successor) would, according to his avowed theory of trusteeship, be compelled to wring his hands helplessly while the country was being ruined. We are inclined, therefore, to believe that in his heart of hearts Mr. McCall now regards his unostentatious and vicarious generosity to the Republicans as a mistake.

Mr. Jacob H. Schiff, in his testimony before the legislative committee of inquiry, admitted that directors are often, in a very real sense, dummies. A director, he said, is practically powerless, of little use except to comply with the law's requirements. The executive officers attend to the business of the corporation and occasionally appeal to the directors for advice. In fine, directors do not direct. In this statement he pointed out one of the great weaknesses in the management, not only of insurance companies, but of other vast corporations. The law provides for directors on the theory that they will act as a check upon executive officers and safeguard the property. The agents who are soliciting insurance or asking you to invest in the stock of some railway or industrial organization, point to the list of directors: "Look at these men, of the highest skill in finance and solidity of character. You cannot possibly make a mistake in casting in your lot with them." But, according to recent revelations, this roll of respectabilities who give standing to a company and inspire faith in it throughout the country, is a mere catalogue of names. That such a system is wrong, no one will now dispute. Mr. Schiff spoke of his own bitter experience in this whole matter; but he and his fellow-directors are not the chief sufferers.

Herr von Lindequist, who has taken over from General Trotha the administration of German Southwest Africa, has a new plan for the pacification of that colony, which he naturally hopes will prove "rapid." It is in so far sensible that it departs in a measure from the blood-and-iron policy of his predecessor. Von Lindequist means to treat different classes of the insurgent natives differently. Those who have conducted warfare honorably, like Chief Morenga and his followers in the south, will be approached with proposals for a peace satisfactory, it is hoped, to both sides. Even the Hereros will be asked to surrender, instead of being hunted down relentlessly; a free pardon being offered to all except a specified few who have been guilty of atrocious massacres. Those who accept amnesty will be given land within a reservation, and promised considerate treatment. All told, this indicates a marked change in the spirit of the military dream. It has been brought about largely by public opinion in Germany, which has been increasingly uneasy over the great and apparently fruitless expenditure and loss of life in the attempt to put down the rebellion.

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SECRETARY SHAW'S RETIREMENT.

The announcement last week by Secretary Shaw that he is to relinquish the Treasury on February 1, was not unexpected. When the President, last March, requested the members of his Cabinet to retain office during the ensuing year, it was well understood that this marked the term of service for several of them. Mr. Shaw has never been one of the inner circle in Cabinet politics, and is, indeed, an associate with whom very intimate political relations on the part of the President could hardly have been expected. Brought into the Administration by Mr. Roosevelt, in February, 1902, with the alleged purpose of removing from the field a possibly dangerous competitor for the next Presidential nomination, his selection was dictated by political expediency. There can have been no special bond of sympathy between the two men in political theories or ideals. In particular, Secretary Shaw's public deliverances regarding the tariff question must have been irritating to the President, and at times perhaps embarrassing. They reflected an obstinate element of Bourbonism intrenched in the Cabinet, whence their official utterance, important because proceeding from the finance minister of the nation, gave material for the bitterest opponents of Mr. Roosevelt's personally liberal tariff policies. The reason why the Secretary under such circumstances retained his office even as long as he has done, was partly the political argument, but doubtless also the further fact that Mr. Roosevelt has never taken great interest in Treasury affairs, and was probably glad to have them off his mind.

With Mr. Shaw's economic theories, we have, as our readers are aware, no sympathy whatever. In the matter of the tariff, they are hopelessly out of touch, not only with intelligent modern thought, but with the growing convictions both of the Eastern business communities and of the prosperous West. It is fair to say, however, that these economic vagaries have played no essential part in his administration of the Treasury. They have not even been incorporated, as have the theories of many preceding secretaries, in his annual reports, which have received much praise, usually well-deserved, for their business-like discussion of practical matters of the moment in Treasury finance. These matters have not been such formidable questions of public credit and the money standard as confronted Secretary Carlisle and Secretary Manning; they were mainly questions arising from the country's great prosperity during Mr. Shaw's term of office, with the consequent strong demand for currency facilities. Protection of the Government's own credit currency by an adequate reserve, and positive declaration for the gold standard in our money, were obtained from Congress while Secretary Gage occupied the Treasury Department, two years before Mr. Shaw succeeded him. The battles won by the sound-money public officers in those earlier days did not need to be fought over.

In so far, however, as Secretary Shaw has had occasion to touch upon these questions—as in his argument for a pledge of redemption of silver certificates in gold at the holders' option—he has taken a sound position and has adhered to it. His reports contain some strong paragraphs on the other question which remains for future settlement, of our unscientific system of national bank circulation. Unlike his attitude on the tariff question, the position taken by Mr. Shaw on the question of bank currency was that of advanced financial thinkers who refuse to be fettered either by outgrown expedients or by the inertia which shrinks from any change. His report of 1902 contains a thorough and well-grouped array of facts to show why the present bank-circulation plan works awkwardly at all times, and cannot in the nature of things be permanent.

In administering his office, Secretary Shaw has in the main been fortunate. We use this word because the practical problems besetting an American finance minister, especially in his relations with the money market, are very different in times of financial stress from those which arise in an era of prosperity. The present Administration has not had to steer the public finances through the perilous seas of 1894 or 1885. A Secretary of the Treasury who at such times sustains public credit and public confidence, often in the face of violent opposition from a Congressional majority, and as often with only ambiguous statutes to rely upon, has a great political achievement to his credit. A different test of administrative efficiency arises in times of high prosperity and abundant revenues, when the Treasury's absorption of currency, under our clumsy law, becomes a disturbing influence. This was what harassed Secretary Fairchild in 1888, when "public deposits in bank" and "the public surplus" became actual issues in a Presidential contest.

Secretary Shaw has had the same difficulties to encounter, and it was in an effort to deal with them that he made the most serious official blunder of his career. When, through the reckless performances of a gang of Wall Street speculators, the autumn money market of 1902 had been thrown into confusion, and credit institutions which were themselves to blame for the situation appealed to Washington for relief, Mr. Shaw resorted to two actions of plain inexpediency and illegality. Contrary to the law's requirements, he released the banks from the duty of keeping reserves against Government deposits. Similarly overstepping all previous interpretations of the law, he authorized, by his simple fiat, banks with public deposits in their hands to substitute other security for the Government bonds previously required. The first of these provisions the banks themselves refused to utilize; the second has been in the main withdrawn by the Secretary himself.

In other directions, Mr. Shaw's Treasury management has been plain sailing. It is pleasant to be able, after the series of disgraceful disclosures in other departments of the present Cabinet, to say that taint of that sort has not touched the Treasury. When one recalls the part played by the Treasury in other Administration scandals, this means much. To Secretary Shaw is also due a recognition of the fact that he has mitigated, so far as obsolete theories and mediæval laws made possible, the barbarities of the attack on personal baggage by the custom house. We sincerely trust that his successor, possibly not hampered by sympathy with the theories out of which these persecutions logically grow, will carry the good work further.

A PROPAGANDA OF SOCIALISM.

A new society has been formed to propagate the doctrines of collectivism, particularly in American colleges. Its list of members includes some names well known in literature and philanthropy. They are the names of native Americans, not of naturalized citizens, who have gathered about them some two hundred souls zealous for the realization of their ideal. It is not necessary to take such persons too seriously. Were their plan to be adopted, they would probably be among the first to chafe under the new conditions of life and government. They belong to that class of reformers of whom Voltaire said: "Ils défendent les ragoûts dont ils ne mangent pas."

It is rather remarkable that educated Americans should be sanguine as to the success of Socialism here. In Europe there is indeed a tendency to regard the United States as the Mecca, if not the home, of the Socialist; but most Americans know better. Socialism is exotic here; and here less than anywhere else should its missionaries be successful. As understood on the Continent of Europe, and as expounded by European writers, it exaggerates the idea of equality, but opposes more or less consciously the idea of liberty. Fortunately, the organization of society and of the state is the effect, not the cause, of national sentiment; and individual liberty is conserved not so much by a particular form of government as by harmony between the popular will and the statute law. In so far as popular sentiment in the United States is native, and in the best sense patriotic, it is hostile to the despotic spirit of the proposed collectivism.

This may explain why the Socialistic

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orators who before every election are vociferous in East Side halls and on street corners, are so often men (and women, too) who know almost as little about the language as they do about the political institutions of this nation. The Socialism which comes as an emigrant from France, Germany, and Russia, seeking hospitality and asylum, finds a welcome chiefly from those who have confounded the idea of equality with that of liberty. The hope of the Socialist in this country is not to gain proselytes among those who are American by birth and tradition, but among the masses of those who, having come here as immigrants, are not yet rid of their hereditary misconception of freedom. In European, especially in Latin, countries the idea of equality has usually been uppermost in the minds of revolutionists, while the sentiment in favor of liberty has been comparatively feeble. Even in the French Revolution, as certain French writers admit, there was no triumph of individualism in the Anglo-Saxon meaning of the term. The revolution was an attack upon corporations and groups, with the idea of reducing all individuals to a uniform type, under a strongly centralized government. The result was that, after the overthrow of the old régime, the French found that they had discarded church, family, caste, and corporation, only to be at the mercy of a money aristocracy which, as Le Bon says, was "ephemeral but formidable, ruling over a dust of individuals without defence or solidarity."

But the programme of the Socialist is even more threatening than the rise of a plutocracy. If its ideal is to be realized, there must be a dictatorship as absolute as that of an Oriental despot. The intelligent Socialist must care very little for individual liberty, and, considering the economic conditions to which he looks hopefully forward, he must care even less for the arts and sciences. It is difficult to see upon what utilitarian principle such a future should be preferred even to the sad abuses of our present civilization. In the Socialist Utopia, the workmen will have the State as their taskmaster—not the State as an abstraction, but in the person of an overseer who will drive them as if they were slaves or criminals. With the loss of personal initiative, there will come also a loss of comfort and repose. The well-meaning enthusiasts who would thus gain equality at the price of liberty, may enjoy the prospect of eating this ragout; but it requires little knowledge of human nature to be convinced that even the most oppressed worker in a factory, or delver at the bottom of a mine, would soon long to regain his previous condition of servitude, if only he might be his own master.

There is an atheistic Socialism, and there is a Socialism grafted upon the teachings of the New Testament in the hope that where logic failed to convince, conscience might lead. This form of collectivism has not made much progless among men of science, but it has become a favorite theory of those who are called "workers"—by which name are designated those who for religious or moral reasons are engaged in philanthropic pursuits. Christian Socialism, which plays some part in the politics of European nations, particularly of Austria, has obtained some vogue in our theological seminaries and university settlements, and has led to a vague idea that the church of the future will be identical with the community. Bebel, the German Socialist, has declared that the Pope, better than any one else, sees clearly the storm which is gathering on the horizon; and Bourdeau has suggested that the papacy might become a formidable rival of revolutionary Socialism, if it were to place itself at the head of a universal democracy and wear a Phrygian cap beneath the tiara. This is even more extravagant than the dreams of "benevolent feudalism."

It is not probable that Socialism of any kind will make many converts among our younger university men, even those who have tasted the joys of collectivism under an athletic director at the training-table. With its contraband literature and its visions of the future, Socialism has been singularly attractive to students in some of the foreign universities; but this may have been as a species of amusement, just as college sporting men of a former generation delighted to transgress the statute which forbade the keeping of "a gun, dog, horse, or any other explosive weapon."

THE NEGRO IN THE NORTH.

"I do not believe the masses of colored people are yet fitted to survive and prosper in the great Northern cities to which so many of them are crowding," is Booker Washington's conclusion, expressed in the number of *Charities* especially devoted to a study of "The Negro in the Cities of the North." But it is not altogether borne out by the dozen or more papers contributed by students of various phases of the problem. In Chicago the negro population is estimated at 35,000; in Boston and its suburbs at 26,000; in Philadelphia at over 60,000; and in New York the total is now nearer 70,000 than the 60,000 shown by the census of 1900. Border cities like St. Louis, Baltimore, and Washington (where in 1900 the largest single group, 86,702, was found) are also vitally interested in the social and industrial status of their negro citizens. While the studies published by *Charities* do not pretend to be exhaustive, they nevertheless indicate that the city negro is not the incubus that fanatics like the Rev. Thomas Dixon, jr., would have us believe he is. The success of the race in making a place for itself in the industrial life of Boston and Chicago is beyond dispute. Of course, conditions are still unsatisfactory. Miss Kellor's observations on the agencies North and South that "assist" negroes in finding employment in New York and Philadelphia are sufficient to prove that.

It does not, we admit, necessarily signify a satisfactory economic state to show that 88 per cent. of the negro males over ten years of age in the eleven largest cities of the North are engaged in gainful occupations, in comparison with the 83 per cent. of all males of the same age, but it suffices to dispose of the charge that as a race they are idlers. More hopeful is the knowledge that they are entering lines of work from which they have heretofore been barred. Thus, the building trades' strike in Chicago in 1900 opened up to negroes a grade of employment that had been regarded by the labor union in control as "white man's work" exclusively. The stockyards strike in 1904 resulted in the permanent employment of a considerable number of colored workers whose efficiency has been amply proved. Mr. R. R. Wright, Jr., of the University of Chicago tells of a typical case: "Several years ago a negro 'boner' came from Kansas City, where he had followed his trade as a union man. He was not admitted to the union in Chicago, where 'boning' was considered a 'white man's job'; and members of the union, though outwardly friendly to the negro, privately advised one another to 'knock' him if he aspired to anything except a 'negro's job.' But, during the strike, negroes got the opportunity to develop proficiency as 'boners.' Now it is no longer considered a 'white man's job,' and the negroes who work at it are being urged to join the union." In the teamsters' strike this spring the negro strike-breakers were conspicuous for their courage, though they were not so numerous as the unions would have us believe. Approximately 800 of them were used, while some 5,000 whites were engaged for the same purpose by the Employers' Association. Mr. Wright reports that about eighty negroes now hold places as drivers obtained during the strike, and that they are doing satisfactory work.

John Daniels of the South End House, Boston, says of the industrial condition of negro men in that city: "There is not an abnormal amount of premeditated and long-continued idleness among the Boston negroes, but there is a good deal of temporary lack of employment." This is explained by the fact that as yet many of the race must depend upon "odd jobs," or work of inferior grades. Mr. Daniels estimates that there are nearly 10,000 colored wage-earners in Boston. Of these, something like 3,200 are servants, waiters, janitors, laborers, store porters,

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hostlers, messengers, and stewards. In the next higher rank of employment, which includes barbers, clerks, stenographers, teamsters, and skilled workmen, Mr. Daniels found 875 negroes, or 20 per cent. of their working men. In the group described as commercial and industrial proprietors—merchants, retail and wholesale, boarding and lodging-house proprietors, boot and shoe makers, undertakers, livery-stable keepers, and hucksters—there are listed 134 negroes; and 131 negroes in the professions help to show that the race is forging ahead in Boston.

Politically, the negro in the Northern city is still in a bondage almost as complete as that under which Tammany's supporters live, and which, before the recent upheaval, Boss Durham's Republican organization imposed upon Philadelphia. But conditions are improving. In an excellent article on "The Black Vote of Philadelphia," Prof. W. E. Burghardt Du Bois of Atlanta University points out that a negro business man, Walter P. Hall, is a member of the Committee of Seventy which is backing Mayor Weaver in the fight for a clean city. One member of the Common Council of the city is a negro, though Durham has promised the "gang" that he shall be the last one. But Durham may change his mind about that, as the ward leader is likely to do who declared that the organization's majority was so safe that it could afford to ignore the 25,000 negro voters, and who told a patronage-seeking delegation to "go to hell," for he didn't need their votes. On the whole, Professor Du Bois does not find that the negro voter is more venal or unintelligent than the white possessor of the suffrage who has contributed to the upbuilding of the corrupt "oligarchy of ward politicians and business men using public office for private gain."

The gravest charge against the Northern city negro is that he is a demoralizing influence. He is alleged to be a social as well as industrial nomad, with a common-law wife in every city and a passion for gambling that makes it impossible to maintain a home. Yet, as Fannie B. Williams, of the Frederick Douglass Centre, Chicago, and Miss Griffin of this city point out in two excellent studies, the negro church is developing institutional work in the cities at a most encouraging rate. Thus, St. Mark's Church, in West Fifty-third Street, besides helping to support three missions, is planning a home for aged negroes, and its Epworth League proposes to maintain a home for respectable young women, where they can live decently and at a low cost. Its Lyceum and various church clubs are popular and flourishing. Miss Ovington of the Greenwich House testifies that the average negro woman in this city respects the marriage obligation, and comes nearer to maintaining a clean, attractive home than do the majority of East Siders. Socially, therefore, as well as politically and economically, the city negro in the North is lifting himself up to a standard of citizenship that will bear inspection. Mr. Washington may be right in advising his people against leaving the South, but they seem to endure the change surprisingly well.

THE FAILURE OF FUSION.

The event has now shown what all along was reasonably clear—that a genuine and hearty union of the various anti-Tammany elements is impossible. The chief reason stares one in the face. How can two (much less three) walk together except they be agreed? There was no real agreement, as to either men, principles or methods, among the parties to the succession of fruitless Fusion conferences. There was visible an attitude of mutual and settled distrust—and distrust with good reason. Anybody who could credit the Republican machine, as now controlled, with an unselfish desire to promote good government in this city, would be a simpleton; anybody who could see in the Hearst League promise of aught but mercenary plotting and disgraceful political methods, would be a lunatic. Those two organizations could confer with the Citizens Union, but that they could ever honestly coöperate with it in an effort to make the government of New York city non-partisan and pure, was from the first unthinkable. It is just as well that the pretence of blending contradictions is finally abandoned.

We should also freely admit that the compelling power of high personal character has been lacking. Of Mr. Cutting, every New Yorker ought to speak with gratitude and respect. He is the personification of single-eyed devotion to the public good. If he has made mistakes in tactics, that only shows that he is fallible like the rest of us; if he has shown himself exigent, that merely indicates that he knew the men with whom he had to deal; but throughout, as all are convinced, he has thought first of the city and last (or, rather, not at all) of himself. But, leaving him out, what hope was there of any good coming from the other participants in the conferences? In other days, we have seen our most distinguished citizens come forward—Committees of Seventy, and so on. But this year our fate was placed in the hands of Halpin and Ihmsen! Who is Halpin? A machinist of the machinists, the willing and contented servant of Odell, a man who might inspire confidence in an applicant for the job of cleaning the spittoons in the City Hall, but who is absolutely unknown and without influence as respects the citizenship at large. And for Hearst to imagine that putting forward one of his own employees, the advance agent of his dollar-branded campaign to secure the Presidential nomination last year, could possibly awaken anything but fear and disgust, simply demonstrates that unscrupulous politicians do not even know their own trade.

Another deficiency in the line of character appeared in the dearth of suitable candidates for the Mayoralty. Dr. Parkhurst, on his return, comments upon our barrenness in men of proved ability, courage, and honesty, to whom we can turn in a great civic emergency. We have all been struck by it in this municipal campaign. Casting about for a mighty name, we have had offered us only the unknown or the mediocre. It is a painful revelation of the blight with which tyrannical party machines and the boss system have smitten our public service, for there can be no doubt that we have the raw material of great public servants in abundance. All of us, with Dr. Parkhurst, can turn in our minds to men who, by natural capacity, by strong personality, and by public spirit, would be admirably fitted for high office; but they are banished from our politics. Bosses like only little and cringing men about them. They make the road to political dignities lie through such intolerable personal indignities that self-respecting men are driven to other pursuits.

Let it be also frankly confessed that there has been no burning issue presented this year of a sort to fuse refractory elements of opposition to Tammany. In other campaigns—in 1884, 1894, 1901—there has been some glaring display of Tammany criminality or ruffianism for public indignation to fasten upon; this year that was wanting. In its absence, the attempt was made, foolishly, we think, to get up an artificial issue on a vague cry for municipal ownership. Tammany looked on all the time with an amused smile, confident that it could make off with that issue bodily if there proved to be anything in it. Meanwhile, the opportunity was neglected to drive home the one great truth on which an anti-Tammany campaign must always be based—the truth, namely, that Murphy, like the leaders before him, is at the head of an organization which exists only by making plunder of the city's offices, and personal gain out of the public business. That essential nature of the beast is not really concealed by the amiable Mayor who consents to stand in front of it. When two men like Murphy and McCarren effusively patch up their differences, honest folk do well to be on their guard. It is as ominous as the reconciliation of Herod and Pilate.

If Mayor McClellan were the man his paulo-post-future eulogists allege, he would put his foot down now on this business. What is the obvious situation? Murphy, having so fine a blooded mastiff at the head of his ticket, is openly pre-

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paring to string "yellow dogs" all the way down it. He thinks McClellan will pull them all through. Particularly disturbing is the plain intention of the Tammany boss to degrade the judiciary. He would refuse renomination to deserving judges in order to put his tools or favorites upon the bench. Murphy appears also to have struck hands with Odell to defeat Jerome—though there can be no doubt that the great majority of the honest residents of this county desire him as District Attorney. Indeed, we are assured that Mayor McClellan himself is anxious that Tammany should make no opposition to Mr. Jerome. Well, then, what is the strong and resolute Mayor going to do about it? It is unquestionable that he can have his way if he insists upon it. Were he to demand clean associates on the ticket with himself, from top to bottom, especially the keeping of Tammany's dirty hand off the judiciary, and to make his own candidacy conditional upon that, it is clear that he could dominate the situation. He can do what Grover Cleveland did in Buffalo—say flatly that he must not be nominated for Mayor unless the candidates for other offices are made acceptable. Here is the great test of Mr. McClellan. We do not ask that he indulge in posturing. It may not be necessary for him to lift up his voice—the thing may be done quietly perhaps; but the city is entitled to demand of the Mayor, at this juncture, that, privately or publicly, he intervene to protect it from the disgrace and danger which Murphy and McCarren are plotting.

We think it high time that the members of the bar considered measures to protect the judiciary in this municipal campaign. There is opportunity for work in either political camp. Murphy should be given to understand that his plan to put creatures of his own in place of Judge Ingraham and Judge Gildersleeve will not be tolerated. Then, if Gov. Higgins could be got hold of by decent Republicans and held firmly while appointing a successor to the late Judge Van Brunt, we might get the making of a stirring campaign in behalf of an able and upright judiciary as well as a capable, honest, and fearless District Attorney. The two causes might fitly be joined, so that we could the more surely look for justice both from the bench and from the chief prosecuting officer.

THE ROOT OF ALL GOOD.

Our blood boiled when we read that a country clergyman had had the effrontery to offer at a religious meeting here in New York a resolution declaring that "no talent for high finance, no useful service to the community, no benefaction to the Church or to objects of philanthropy, can excuse or atone for dereliction in trust, contempt for the rights of others, or disregard of the rules of common honesty." Bishop Potter, who was presiding, very properly frowned, and passed over the matter in a paternal manner. If he and the Episcopal Church do not make stand against this reckless abuse of our best citizens and most devout worshippers, no one will; and the tongue of slander will run on unchecked. Just because a few officers and directors of insurance companies have been "caught with the goods on," there is a wild howl about a frantic and unscrupulous scramble for gain. A day or two ago the Rev. Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst joined the chorus; William Allen White has an article about it in the October *Atlantic;* President Nicholas Murray Butler has been solemnly warning his boys at Columbia; and at a little social gathering in Cleveland, John D. Rockefeller has been lamenting that more of his dear friends do not choose the higher things of life in preference to filthy money. Of these four men only one is qualified to testify as an expert. Dr. Parkhurst is a minister, and of course wholly ignorant of business; Mr. White is a Kansas editor, who probably has not to-day a paltry half-million of unencumbered property; and Dr. Butler is nothing but a college president, pegging along on $10,000 or so a year. Mr. Rockefeller ought to know whether it is worth while to get rich. Whatever he may say when speaking for publication, his real feelings are expressed by his actual choice of good things.

The intimation that he has not chosen wisely should be resented by every loyal New Yorker. What are we here for, if not for money? Is Wall Street a health resort? Is Broadway a golf links? Are the roofs of our sky-scrapers breezy mountain tops? Are the corridors of the Waldorf-Astoria the echoing aisles of a primeval forest? Does Manhattan Island lift its fronded palms in air? Dr. Butler is no backwoods deacon that he should chatter about reputations melting like snow before the sun of publicity. Apparently, he alludes to such men as James W. Alexander, James Hazen Hyde, and Chauncey Mitchell Depew; but they are not making any complaint. They got what they wanted, and they are not crying because they have lost what they didn't need. Your professional thief must reckon upon spending at least a quarter of his time behind prison bars, at hard labor, with poor food. But all three of the men we have mentioned made off with more than the most skilful cracksman could hope for; they are at large, with comfortable houses and well-cooked dinners; and one of them is a member of the United States Senate. They are not beggarly school teachers and preachers whose stock in trade is reputation; they are not butlers or coachmen on fifty dollars a month that they must have letters from their last employers. They are high financiers; and if you don't admire them, you can do the other thing.

The people who work in the money mill have taken the job with their eyes open. Walk through Wall Street and look at them. Listen to their talk at the bars and in the restaurants of the financial district. They are not fools, as Dr. Butler and Mr. White would have us believe. They are getting the objects that are worth having in this troubled and transitory life. They acquire power. When a man has piled up enough millions he can make existence a burden for his enemies on the Stock Exchange. John W. Gates and James R. Keene are as happy every day as a bulldog killing a cat; but Dr. Parkhurst doesn't enjoy a thrill like that once a decade. If you have enough money, you can always see your name and your picture in the papers. Your slightest cold in the head throws the yellow journals into hysterics of red and green ink. Your wife and children run a gantlet of photographers while daylight lasts. Your house is pointed out to the people who are seeing New York. The wages you pay your servants, the price of your cigars and of the underclothing of your whole family, the food you eat, and your last divorce suit are matters of public discussion. It's much better than being President or even a popular actress.

After all, however, these are only intellectual pleasures. It is to the real man, the physical, that money caters as nothing else can. We do not observe that Dr. Butler and other anæmic moralists are living very high. They cannot afford private cars, private yachts, and automobiles. They have to work so hard that they cannot indulge in ten-course dinners, nervous prostration, and other things which the wealthy and well-bred now reckon among the bare necessities. William Allen White is not opening champagne every night at the club; his purse couldn't stand that pace for a single month. Let us free our minds, then, from hypocrisy. Everybody can't be rich. Society could not exist without its submerged tenth of bootblacks, college professors, car conductors, artists, street-sweepers, musicians, and small tradesmen. But these are occupations for the dull and unambitious. Any one who has red blood in his veins will get out and hustle for the stuff that will procure him the choicest viands, the richest wines, and the most refined society.

IN SOUTHERN SWEDEN.

MALMÖ, September 13, 1905.

If one had been expecting signs of political disturbance on entering Sweden at this juncture of affairs, he would have been disappointed. For neither as he paused in Norway nor as he mingled with the people in Sweden would he see anything that seemed to be different from an ordinary state of affairs. Indeed, the more intelligent

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Swedes with whom we have conversed have no hesitation in expressing their sympathy with Norway and their dissatisfaction with the failure of the King to notice her grievances. It seems but fair that the part of the nation which carries on nine-tenths of all the foreign trade, should have a due share of the consular appointments and of the honors and emoluments of the government. But here at Malmö the united flag still floats over the pleasure park.

As this visit to Sweden, however, is in the interest of glacial geology, I cannot forbear speaking of some most interesting phenomena which have recently come to light and must prove of great interest to the general reading public. Of course, one expected to find abundant indications here of the great ice movement which radiated from Northern Scandinavia, but the extent of those indications all around the North Sea and the Baltic is such as to surprise even the hardened glacialist. Before coming to Denmark and Sweden I had picked up Norwegian pebbles from the glacial till which borders the moorland of Yorkshire on the east coast of England. Indeed, Norwegian boulders are abundant in Eastern England as far south and as far inland as Cambridge, showing that the whole North Sea was at that time but an expansion of Scandinavian ice. Denmark, also, is entirely covered with Scandinavian drift. Zealand, at any rate, is scarcely anything else than a congeries of terminal moraines with intervening bogs and kettle-holes, the one filled with peat and the other with water. Boulders innumerable are everywhere apparent in fields and fences and in the solid walls of barns and houses. An American could easily imagine himself in southern Michigan or in Wisconsin or Minnesota.

Here in Skåne, which forms the very southern part of Sweden, we have a similar contour of land surface, with its rich agricultural possibilities. But the story of its formation recently brought to light is more marvellous still. To a considerable extent it is found that the farmers of Skåne are living upon the richness of Finland, as those in Ohio are upon that of Canada. It appears that the centre of the ice movement in Scandinavia was farther east than was first supposed, so that the same movement which carried boulders to southeastern Russia carried them also southwestward down the whole length of the Baltic Sea, where, meeting with less resistance on the west than upon the south, a portion of the ice turned northwest toward the more open North Sea. Thus the whole of southern Skåne became covered with a congeries of terminal moraines whose material was in part brought from Finland and in part pushed up from the bottom and shores of the Baltic Sea.

Under the guidance of Dr. N. O. Holst of the Swedish Geological Survey, who is now at work mapping the region, I was permitted to see probably the most remarkable results of glacial action that have ever been brought to light. For some time the Salem Natural History Society of Massachusetts fancied that Ship Rock in Peabody, which they carefully preserved, was the largest of American boulders. But the late Mr. David A. Wells challenged the claim, and called attention to a still larger one in Norwich, Conn., while Prof. W. O. Crosby, entering the lists, maintained that one which he had discovered in Madison, N. H., should claim preëminence. To cap all, however, Prof. Edward Orton came in with a report, which, to most who have not seen it for themselves, may seem a regular "fish story." This was, that in southwestern Ohio he had found a mass of Clinton limestone covering three-quarters of an acre, and twenty-feet thick, which had been transported bodily for many miles and laid gently to rest between two glacial deposits.

Now here in southern Sweden, a few miles east of Malmö, is a story which eclipses all that has gone before. For many years commercial companies have been quarrying chalk along a belt three miles long and 1,000 feet wide. Upon the surface this appears simply as a swell in the glacial deposits from 100 to 150 feet in height, the chalk being everywhere covered with several feet of boulder-bearing clay. The earlier geologists were greatly puzzled by the position of these chalk beds, since they belonged to an older formation than those which ordinarily occur in southern Sweden, and should, therefore, have been under them. But here the order was certainly reversed, and the older formations appeared above the younger. The riddle is now solved by the discovery that this whole mass, three miles long and one-fifth of a mile wide, and from 100 to 200 feet in thickness, has been torn from the shores or the bed of the Baltic and transported bodily to its present position, thirty or forty miles inland. For, in most places, glacial till is found to underlie it and separate it from the newer rocks which form the substratum of the peninsula. It should be said, however, that the chalk everywhere shows indications of immense pressure and disturbance. The upper portions have been sheared off and often mingled with bands of boulder clay, while most of the abundant flint nodules have been shattered and arranged in lines or belts showing the direction of the line of movement. The chalk is also broken up into small cubes. Still, for the most part, the immense mass remains compact, and has moved as a solid body. For many decades to come, the rich manufacturers and farmers of Skåne will continue to profit from this vast mass of foreign treasure which has been so conveniently brought within their reach.

From what we have observed in Sweden, it would seem that the poorer the land the greater the wealth of the families in children. In much of the stony region through which we have recently passed, families of eight and ten children seem to be the rule rather than the exception; one is, therefore, not surprised to find the tide of emigration to America upon the increase. Already a new Sweden is growing up in our Northwestern States, and the United States has two-fifths as many Swedes as remain in the mother country; there being 2,000,000 in America to 5,000,000 in Sweden. Among the glacial lakelets of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Dakota they find conditions closely resembling those which they are leaving behind. With their thrifty habits and high moral character they cannot fail to become a valuable element of our population. But the farseeing philanthropist is led to ask with concern what is to happen when there are no more glacial fields to conquer, and the overcrowded populations of these stony farms can find no further outlet for emigration.

G. Frederick Wright.

MARSHAL BERTHIER.

Paris, September 20, 1905.

A time will come when, in the popular imagination which always transforms history into legends, Napoleon and his marshals will appear somewhat like Charlemagne and his *preux*. There were never so many books written on the Napoleonic period as in our time. Is it because France consoles herself in a certain measure for her great defeats in the war of 1870 by remembrance of the heroic period of the wars of the Revolution and of the Empire? or because the history of Napoleon is the most dramatic history of modern times? Hitherto the marshals who helped him in the organization and command of his armies have been left more or less in the background. I have before me an elaborate work on 'Marshal Berthier, Prince of Wagram and of Neuchâtel,' by Gen. Derrécagaix. The first volume extends from 1753 to 1804, the second covers the later years of the marshal.

Berthier's name is known chiefly to military men as that of a great organizer. He was Napoleon's general chief of staff, a function which became more and more important as the armies became more and more numerous.

"His talents," says the author of the work we mention, "have not had the reputation which they deserved; and posterity, in attributing to him simply the part of satellite to the brilliant star which he accompanied, thought it rendered him sufficient justice. . . . After the Empire, the friends of the Emperor and the marshals formed in his school fell into the habit of minimizing Berthier and of attributing to him the sole merit of having known how to transmit the orders of Napoleon. His enemies went further: they denied him any sort of worth, and sometimes added that the genius of the great man alone had made his reputation. The Prince Major-General having died suddenly, on foreign soil, at the moment when the Emperor disappeared in his turn, exiled in a distant island, the detractors had free scope and wrote history at the dictate of their dislikes or their whims. Marshal Berthier's memory suffered cruelly by this."

Napoleon never separated from Berthier during his numerous campaigns. It is true that he himself made his plans, but Berthier helped him in their execution. In the campaign of 1815, which ended at Waterloo, Berthier was not with him, but was replaced by Soult; and Napoleon said afterwards, in talking of his defeat: "If I had had Berthier, I should not have had any misfortune." The papers of Napoleon's chief of staff were destroyed by order of the Emperor when he returned to Paris in 1815. In 1855, the commission charged with publishing Napoleon's correspondence (an immense work and a most important historical document) received many papers signed by Berthier; all that could be found had been collected by Berthier's grandson, Prince Alexander of Wagram, at Grosbois. These papers were catalogued and classified with care by M. Albert Dufourcq. In 1870, Grosbois, the country place of the Berthiers, was occupied for a while by the Prussians, but the collections were respected, and Gen. Derrécagaix has been able to use for his work the archives of the place, which was given by Napoleon to his companion in arms. He has also used largely the national archives, as well as the archives of the Ministry of War and of the Foreign Office.

Louis Alexandre Berthier was born at

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Versailles on the 20th of November, 1753. His father was a colonel, who had fought under Marshal de Belle-Isle, but who ended his career in the topographical service. Alexandre entered the army; his father had brought him up for the topographical service, but he preferred an active life, and asked to join the army of Rochambeau. He left France in June, 1780, and, after stopping some time in Martinique, arrived in the revolted colonies on the 30th of September, 1780. He distinguished himself on various occasions; saw the capitulation of Yorktown; and afterward had to take part in an expedition against the West Indies and Jamaica. His first campaign lasted three years; he returned to France in 1783 with the staff of Viomenil, of which he was a member. He took part in a mission which was sent to Prussia, under the orders of the Marquis de Custine, to study the military organization of that country; and it is a curious incident of the life of the future major-general of the *grande armée* of 1806 that he should, twenty years before, have had to study on the spot the elements of strength and of weakness in the future adversaries of Napoleon. On his return he was attached definitely to the general staff of the army.

When the Revolution broke out, Berthier was already thirty-six years old; Napoleon, Lannes, Soult, Ney, were only twenty years old, Davout nineteen, Murat eighteen, Bernadotte twenty-five, Mortier and Bessières twenty-one. The services which Berthier had already rendered exposed him to some dangers. Lafayette had given him a high command in the National Guard, and Berthier protected against the mob of Versailles the departure of the King's aunts for Italy. For this he was denounced as a friend of the royal family; he lost his command, and retired for some time to Précy-sur-Oise, where he lived as a private citizen.

At the beginning of 1795, on the recommendation of Marie Joseph Chénier, brother of the great poet, he obtained a post in the Army of the Alps, with Kellermann; he then organized completely the service of the general staff. He urged the Minister of War, Gen. Clarke, to allow the Army of the Alps to take the offensive, to cross the Alps and take possession of Piedmont. When Bonaparte's views were formed on the campaign of 1796, he designated Berthier as his chief of staff, and from that moment the destiny of Berthier was bound up with that of Napoleon. After the day of Fructidor, Bonaparte had become all-powerful in military matters, and was the true Council of the Government. The choice he made of Berthier was not due to any personal recommendations, but was inspired solely by the study Bonaparte had made of his reports and his plans. They met each other at Nice, and prepared together the first campaign in Italy, which began with the famous proclamation of Bonaparte in which, addressing the army, ill-fed and ill-clothed, he offered to it the rich plains of Lombardy. We cannot go into the details of the campaigns of 1796 and 1797 in Italy, of the expedition against Rome, of the expedition to Egypt, of the second campaign in Italy of 1800. In all these, Berthier played his part as major-general of the staff.

Berthier was with Bonaparte on the famous day of the eighteenth Brumaire, and two days afterwards he was named Minister of War. As such he was able to reorganize all the services of the army. He left this post only when Napoleon entered on the campaign of 1800, to resume his functions of major-general. After the battle of Marengo he was sent by the First Consul as Ambassador Extraordinary to Madrid, in order to enter into negotiations on the subject of the conventions to be made with the Duke of Parma and the cession of Louisiana to France. The secret object of his mission was to incite Spain to make war on Portugal, England's ally. On his return he was appointed for the second time Minister of War, directed the movements of the French armies, and corresponded with Moreau, who commanded the Army of the Rhine, with Augereau, with Brune, Macdonald, Bernadotte, and Menou. The victories of the French armies were followed by the peace of Lunéville, and afterwards by the peace of Amiens. When Napoleon assumed the title of Emperor, one of his first acts was to name twelve marshals. At the head of the list figured Berthier. Soon afterwards he was named *grand veneur*, one of the great officers of the new court, and also Senator. Napoleon was well aware of the important part which he had taken, from 1800 to 1805, in the formation of the great imperial army which was soon to triumph over all the European armies.

"The extraordinary brilliancy," writes General Derrécagaix, "of the personality of Napoleon has often hindered his contemporaries and posterity from judging his colaborers as they deserve. The habit has been formed of making no account of his Minister of War, of believing that the First Consul and afterwards the Emperor in effect filled these functions, and that Berthier was a mere intermediary. But things did not so take place. The part of Bonaparte, First Consul, was that of a dictator-generalissimo, of a capacity, of an ardor, an audacity and a creative fecundity quite incomparable. Berthier's part consisted in embodying the ideas, the projects, the will of the hero, chief of the State and of the army."

To follow Berthier in the campaigns of the *grande armée* would be to write the history of the Empire. After the second Austrian campaign, Napoleon made him Prince of Wagram. The campaign of France in 1814 ended with the capitulation of Paris. Berthier was with the Emperor at Fontainebleau. Napoleon asked him to go with him to the island of Elba. Berthier did not accept this offer; he was married to a Bavarian princess, he had children. He ought, after the great favors conferred on him, to have retired into private life, and he had the weakness to accept from Louis XVIII. the command, and the empty title of captain, of the King's bodyguard. Upon the return of Napoleon from Elba, Berthier accompanied the King to Belgium, but did not remain with him, and went to Bamberg, whither his wife and children had retired. He remained there during the Hundred Days. The Emperor hoped that Berthier would come back to him, and said that he would forgive him on condition that he would reappear in his uniform of *garde du corps*. At Bamberg, Berthier asked for passports in order to go back with his family to his French estates of Grosbois and Chambord; but the Allied Powers objected to his return to France, for fear lest he should again serve Napoleon as major-general. The Princess alone received passports for herself and her children.

In the month of May, 1815, numerous Russian troops traversed Bamberg. On the 1st of June, Berthier went to his children's room in the third story of the Residenz, and from a window looked on the fine troop of Russian cuirassiers in the street. He mounted a chair so as to see better, and, losing his balance, fell from a height of 29 metres to the street, and died almost immediately. Was it an accident? was it suicide? The legend will have it that Berthier, on seeing the Russian troops, full of remorse for his conduct after the abdication of Napoleon, committed suicide. Such is not the opinion of General Derrécagaix, and he gives strong arguments for the other alternative. *Adhuc sub judice res est.*

Correspondence.

THE GERMAN 'WHO'S WHO.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comment (No. 2098) on 'Wer Ist's?' you criticise the selection of American names, and say "there is in the preface, however, no hint of the criterion employed." I think your inference is inaccurate. The work is essentially "ein deutsches Zeitgenossenlexikon" (p. vii.), and of foreigners "infolge ihrer deutsche Interessen berührende Tätigkeit" (p. viii.). That is, the labors of eminent foreigners must in some way, directly or indirectly, have touched German interests.

Being the first volume, it undoubtedly has many omissions, but it was not intended to include "Who's Who" of the world, not even of America. O. K.

Ottawa, September 25, 1905.

[We will leave our correspondent to compare in 'Who's Who in America' the names we discussed in 'Wer Ist 's?' and discover if he can, in most of them, the peculiar "activity touching German interests" which warranted their inclusion —and the corresponding omissions pointed out.—Ed. Nation.]

LINCOLN'S WRITINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you kindly tell me if the Writings of Abraham Lincoln advertised in the *Nation* by the Francis D. Tandy Co. is in any way connected with the work that G. P. Putnam's Sons are obtaining subscriptions for? It seems strange that the two works should come out together—if there are two. Will you please put me straight about the matter?—Yours, E. H. L.

October 2, 1905.

[So far as we can inform ourselves, there will be a very considerable difference in the contents of the two series, though they will have, of course, much that is common property and not copyrightable. The Messrs. Putnam's edition forms part of the "Writings of the Fathers of the Republic" upon which they have been engaged for the past

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twenty-five years, as their Washington, Franklin, Hamilton, etc., testify. Both publishers promise new matter—if not always Lincoln's own, at least relating to him, such as, in the case of Messrs. Putnam, Mr. Schurz's critical estimate of him, a memorial address by Mr Choate, and a special introduction from President Roosevelt's pen. The coincidence of publication is purely fortuitous.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

A collection of the letters of the late Lafcadio Hearn has been undertaken by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. It will be edited, with a biographical outline, by Mr. Ferris Greenslet of the *Atlantic Monthly*, with the collaboration of Mrs. Hearn and of Basil Hall Chamberlain, the literary executor. It is requested that persons having letters of Hearn's will kindly communicate with the editor at No. 4 Park Street, Boston.

The Johns Hopkins Press will issue immediately a new and thoroughly revised edition of Prof. William K. Brooks's book on the 'American Oyster'; also, a new metrical translation, with an introduction and explanatory note, by Prof. Paul Haupt, of the Book of Ecclesiastes.

James Pott & Co. will bring out 'The Reign of Gilt,' by David Graham Phillips; 'The Woman of To-morrow,' by Helen M. Winslow; 'Women of Wit and Beauty of the Time of George IV.,' by John Fyvie; 'Milton and the Cavaliers,' by F. S. Boas; 'Makers of Modern History,' by the Hon. Edward Cadogan; and 'The Aspects of Balzac,' by W. H. Helm.

'One Thousand and One Modern Anecdotes,' by Alfred H. Miles, will shortly be published by Thomas Whittaker.

Macmillan Co. have in press 'Alcestis, and Other Poems,' by Sarah King Wiley; 'The City, and Other Poems,' by Arthur Upson; and W. B. Yeats's Poems and Plays in two volumes.

Among the forthcoming publications of John Lane Co. will be a book entitled 'Jane Austen's Sailor Brothers,' by J. H. Hutback and Edith C. Hutback, grandson and great-granddaughter of the elder brother, Sir Francis Austen. Though the navy was much in Jane's thoughts—'Persuasion' and 'Mansfield Park' make this clear—it is a patent fact that her works give no idea of the stirring times in which she lived, whereas the adventures of her brothers take the reader through the Napoleonic wars, our war of 1812, and so down to the second Burmese war in 1852. Sir Francis Austen left complete log-books of every ship on which he served. It is from these, from letters of Jane's—several of them published here for the first time—and of other members of the family, with frequent reference to Capt. Mahan's works, that the book has been compiled. It will have numerous illustrations, including an original sketch of the novelist by her sister Cassandra.

From the Clarendon Press announcements we select 'Shakspere's Poems and Pericles,' or his extra-First-Folio works, reproduced in collotype facsimile after the original edition in each case, with introductions by Sidney Lee, the whole in five volumes of a thousand copies each; 'Poems and Extracts Chosen by William Wordsworth,' for an album, in 1819, with facsimiles, with introduction by Prof. H. Littledale; 'Wordsworth's Literary Criticism in Prose,' with an introduction by Nowell C. Smith; 'Wordsworth's Guide to the Lakes,' with an introduction by E. de Sélincourt; 'Chronicles of London,' edited by C. L. Kingsford; the third volume of Beazley's 'Dawn of Modern Geography'; and 'Critical Essays of the Seventeenth Century,' by J. E. Spingarn, in three volumes.

We have been favored by the Chicago Library Club with a copy of its modest publication, 'Libraries of the City of Chicago, with an Historical Sketch of the Chicago Library Club.' It consists, besides the sketch, of a list of libraries—as complete as was practicable—followed, in the case of several of the larger ones, by more detailed statements as to their origin, buildings, special collections, etc. Portraits of John Crerar and Walter Loomis Newberry, and views of several buildings and interiors, enhance the value of this conspectus. The very first on the list, the Altrua Art Library, supported by the Altrua Circle, has an exceptional interest, being open for reference and circulation of its books and photographs to all self-supporting girls and women. Notable in the Newberry Library is the index to its genealogical collection, in 700 type-written volumes; in the Ryerson Library of the Art Institute, its unrivalled collection of Braun carbon prints; in the Historical Society's Library, the Madison and Wilkinson papers, etc.

The sixth volume of Dr. Thwaites's noble edition of the Original Journals of Lewis and Clark (Dodd, Mead & Co.) is occupied with scientific data—geography, ethnology, zoölogy, botany, mineralogy, meteorology, astronomy, etc. The section relating to the Indians, a fine example of editing in the presentation of tabulated matter, is generally readable, and the remainder according to the reader's taste. The chief illustration is a facsimile of the first page of Floyd's Journal. A seventh volume and the atlas are yet to come.

To the Dent-Putnam "Classiques Français" have been added Octave Feuillet's 'Le Roman d'un Jeune Homme Pauvre' and Benjamin Constant's 'Adolphe,' introduced respectively by Augustin Filon and Paul Bourget, and each provided with a portrait. These are truly pretty books without and within, fitted for the hand and the pocket; and the proof-reading, if not quite impeccable, is sufficiently accurate for any one not a novice in French.

Newnes's Pocket Classics (Scribner) grow with 'Songs and Lyrics from the Dramatists' and 'The Poems of Gray and Collins,' and 'The Imitation of Christ.' These little volumes in limp covers with gilded ornamentation are externally the more attractive; but the presswork is clear, especially in the à Kempis.

Slightly larger than the foregoing but similarly bound is the new output of R. L. Stevenson's 'Edinburgh' (Lippincott). Here the print is both large and more even in tint.

Early in the present year we characterized Thomas Hutchinson's "Oxford Edition" of the Poetical Works of Shelley (Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde). It now comes to us again in two forms, one 12mo on heavy paper, the other from the same plates but with smaller margins, and printed on the Oxford India paper which effects such marvels of compression. The latter volume is, in fact, just half the size of the other, and is a rather more presentable book, with scarcely any deduction to be made for legibility.

As Mr. Hutchinson's chief concern was with his text, so has been Mr. Paul E. More's in preparing the Cambridge Edition of Byron's Complete Poetical Works (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). For this purpose, publication has been held back for several years in order to profit by Murray's seven-volume edition. Like Mr. Hutchinson, again, Mr. More has had to strive with his author's erratic punctuation. Byron's own notes have been sparingly supplemented in view of the size of the volume, which now takes its place in a standard series of great convenience and fair, unpretentious appearance.

The Memoir of Tennyson by his son, having run its prosperous course in two volumes, has now been reissued by Macmillan in one—say, rather, bound in one, as the pagination has not been harmonized. It is, no doubt, sufficiently heavy to hold, but there is a gain in the combination apart from the more popular price. The presswork is unexceptionable, and the entire get-up is free from any suggestion of cheapening.

From the same firm we have the second reprint of Mr. Charles Dexter Allen's 'American Book-Plates,' a work of permanent value for guidance and reference, and freely illustrated with examples. Its heraldic shortcoming we pointed out ten years ago. We will recall to mind the section on early American wood engravers, in which, as the descriptions are summary, we should have been glad to have a list of authorities, such as the monographs on Paul Revere, Abel Bowen, and John Anderson, the earliest American engraver on wood. Of Anderson we read that at the age of twelve (or in 1787) he made his first plate—of copper pennies rolled thin—being a head of John Paul Jones.

'Pictures of Life and Character, by John Leech' (Putnams), mainly from *Punch*, raises the question how far these cartoons represent the England of to-day, and to what extent they now contribute to the gayety of the artist's countrymen. They have historic value, no doubt, for manners and customs, for dress, etc. In some the humor of the drawing suffices; in many the legend is necessary for the smile. Mr. Henry James is cited in praise of Leech for his treatment of the horse: "He understood the animal, and drew him as if he knew how to ride as well as to draw." But Muybridge, and the snapshot as we daily see it applied to racing and leaping, have proved Leech to have been bound by the conventionality of his day regarding the horse in action. One wonders if his drawings in this particular would, with the enlightenment we now have, have been bedevilled like those of our horse artists striving to depict what they never see, but constrained by the knowledge furnished by the camera.

Dr. Arthur Mahler and his collaborators, Carlos Blacker and W. A. Slater, have produced a useful little book in 'Paintings of the Louvre—Italian and Spanish' (Double-

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day, Page & Co.). In it they have tried to give some account of every picture of the Italian or Spanish school actually exhibited in the galleries of the Louvre, together with a running historical and critical commentary; and this task they have performed with commendable accuracy and sufficient knowledge, so that the book, as embodying the latest results of research, is to be relied on. The criticism is unoriginal and often extremely commonplace, and there is nothing inspiring or entertaining between the covers of the volume, but there is a great deal of information, and the traveller who wishes to know what he is really looking at will find it a valuable supplement to the official catalogue. It is well arranged, the English is smooth, and the illustrations are numerous and, considering the scale, well executed. The worst fault of the book is the color of the cover —a really terrible blue.

The latest of the "Menpes books" is devoted to 'Brittany' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan). Mr. Mortimer Menpes has made a specialty of travelling with a water-color box and a literary daughter, and the results of these travels appear each year in good time for the holiday trade. Text and illustrations have a common facility and a common lack of seriousness which is welcome, or the reverse, according to one's point of view. Is it a fear of the hackneyed or a prudent regard for his own limitations that leads the artist to avoid all notable picturesqueness and all celebrated scenes? Certain it is that the wonder grows how an artist can travel so far and see so little that might not be seen anywhere else. Here is what he brings back from Mont St. Michel: a baby in a cradle, an old woman with a bowl of soup, a young woman at breakfast, a man in a kitchen, and a girl doing nothing in particular in no particular place. There are caps and sabots and a very little furniture to mark the province, but of one of the most wonderful places in the world there is no hint. If the work were first-rate, one might be satisfied with it as art though quarrelling with it as illustration, but it is only a very mild second-rate, at best.

David W. Hoyt, Providence, R. I., concludes with part xi. the second volume of his 'Old Families of Salisbury and Amesbury, Mass., with some Related Families of adjoining towns and of York County, Maine.' It winds up the Morrill Family, and adds Mussey, Peasley, Pike, Stanyard and Stevens, Wells, Whitridge and Whittier, with others, plus additions, a general index, one of places, and one of surnames. The work is here ended, for want of pecuniary support, and this is much to be regretted in view of the author's diligence, scientific method, and devotion. The typography is elegant.

The well-known Danish philologist, Prof. Ludv. F. A. Wimmer, has just published the third volume of his 'Danish Runic Monuments,' completing the text with description and interpretation of all the Danish runic inscriptions. The fourth volume, which will contain a vocabulary, is still in preparation. Denmark is particularly rich in runic monuments, especially those written in the elder alphabet. Professor Wimmer has for a generation or more been one of the recognized great authorities in the field of runic research, and his standard work on this topic, 'Die Runenschrift,' which in its German garb appeared in 1887, now being somewhat out of date, the appearance of the introduction to this present work (to form part of the first volume) will be eagerly looked forward to.

The annual volume of Transactions and Proceedings of the American Philological Association is marked by a vigorous plea for reform in the method of publication. Dr. Charles P. G. Scott, the protestant, easily demonstrates the inconvenience of grouping in a single volume a mass of papers so miscellaneous that it is a mere chance if any given reader is interested in any three successive titles. He desires that all important papers be published separately, in pamphlet form, each to have its own title-page bearing the subject, the name of the author, a fixed formula showing the relation of the paper to the Association, and the imprint of the publishing company, in the order indicated. Each member of the Association could then collect and arrange in scientific order the papers in which he might be interested, while outsiders would be able to purchase any paper desired without the necessity of paying for a mass of material not only of no use to them, but seriously in their way. It is just possible that the tomb-like character of the present method of publication may be partly responsible for the fact that many of the best papers presented at the meetings of the Association cannot be secured for publication in the Transactions at all.

The most noteworthy article in the *Geographical Journal* for September is the account of several journeys in Asiatic Turkey by Col. Massy, a member of the British consular service. He appears not only to have travelled with absolute safety, but to have been hospitably treated wherever he went. This is the more remarkable as he passed through extensive regions in Kurdistan where there exists no sign of government, the chief of each tribe being a law to himself. On one occasion he was witness to an intertribal fight over the ownership of a few sheep, in which several Kurds were killed. By his explorations in the Taurus, near the Cilician Gates, he throws some light upon the much-discussed question as to the route Cyrus took over the mountains. He is an enthusiastic supporter of the Baghdad railway scheme and its extension to the Persian Gulf. A vast region, which now, from lack of profitable transport, is only a nomad-traversed grazing country, will, with the advent of the railway and irrigation, become one of the finest cotton and grain-producing parts of the world. Other subjects treated are the Nile flood and its variations, with tables of observations taken at various points, and the highlands of Chili in North China, from the record of a journey made to promote British interests in that part of the empire.

The French Government is having a new edition of the Koran prepared in Algiers, the main stress being laid upon the thoroughly scientific preparation of the text. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* states that this work has been undertaken at the request of the Orientalist Congress which convened some months ago in Algiers, in which also a large number of Moslem savants took an interested part.

First of the 1906 calendars to arrive is "Spemann's Kunst-Kalender" (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), a pad in form as in the three preceding issues. As usual, too, the art is of all ages, well chosen and well printed, often in color, and each plate is described. Architecture has a place beside sculpture, drawing, and painting. Repin's barefooted portrait of Tolstoy standing; Legros's medallions of Charles Darwin and Carlyle; Savinsky's portrait of Maeterlinck, occur here, and there are several American examples. The same New York firm sends us the tenth issue of "Meyer's Historisch-Geographischer Kalender," companionable with the foregoing in size and appearance, but cultivating another field in the usual way. Notable American personages are not wanting among the portraits. What we do miss is any reflection of the great Russo-Japanese duel. The Japanese scenes are all of peace. Both calendars are indexed for the illustrations.

—The editor of *Scribner's* must be credited, in the current number, with a unique achievement in securing an account of the Presidential field-sports direct from the pen of the President himself, and so fresh that the blood of the bears slain could even yet presumably be traced on the Colorado hillsides. "How We Defeated the Russians," from the pen of the Mikado, is about the only conceivable way in which this could be surpassed. Perhaps, when it is all over, the President's natural disposition to take the people into his confidence will draw from his full inkhorn a candid description of some of his battles within the walls of the White House, in comparison with which his encounters with the bears and bobcats of Colorado are but child's-play. The Bancroft letters and diaries, in this issue, come down to Mr. Bancroft's return to America, during the summer of 1822. His gratitude to President Kirkland, through whose interest his travel and study abroad had been made possible, was unbounded. "I owe to you," he writes soon after his return, "my intellectual existence, my hopes and my happiness. If I can enter with fine prospects the paths of usefulness and honor, I am indebted for this advantage to you." Russell Sturgis contributes a few paragraphs on the decoration of the Sorbonne, lamenting the fact that the foremost decorative painter of modern times should have been compelled to devote his time to thinking out dreamy schemes of personification and metaphor, though the result gives one "a certain sense of surprising achievement in a direction not wholly admirable and not involving much original thought."

—Mr. Nevinson's third paper in *Harper's* simply adds emphasis to his already well-established thesis that the various legal forms for the supposed regulation of native contract labor in Africa are but the flimsiest kind of cover for genuine human slavery. Just what is to be done about it in an age that no longer feels any enthusiasm for the doctrine of an inalienable human right to life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, remains to be seen. Mr. Nevinson apparently feels that his task ends simply with demolishing the hypocrisy which would cover the facts under a dis-

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guise of fine language. Another instalment from Prof. John Bassett Moore's forthcoming book on American Diplomacy is noticeable chiefly for its clear assertion and illustration of the much forgotten fact that the United States was one of the most potent influences for the political betterment of the entire civilized world from the very start. The experiment of 1898, even under the most favorable interpretation, merely marks a change of method, the results of which have yet to demonstrate their validity. Hamilton W. Mabie pays a brief but very warm tribute to the free kindergarten as a force for the mental and moral uplifting and the Americanization of the masses of children of foreign parentage in the poorer districts of New York city. One may heartily accept all that he says, and still reserve one's opinion as to possible fundamental defects in the kindergarten theory when applied to the education of children unhampered by similar disadvantages.

—Certain phases of the present social and political situation stand out most prominently among the contents of the *Atlantic*. William Allen White pleads for "the Golden Rule" in the life of the masses as the needful ameliorating factor. "Until men cease to wrong one another in small private transactions, they cannot in justice demand as rights the suppression by their Government of similar large public transactions." The logical outcome of this reasoning would remit the whole matter from the courts of law to the field of moral regeneration, yet Mr. White pleads in one portion of his paper for legislative intervention to establish and maintain rates of wages for labor sufficiently high to enable the laboring classes to grow mentally and morally up to the stature necessary for good citizenship. Mr. White seems not to have reasoned the matter out thoroughly enough to appreciate the hard fact that an arbitrary general raising of wages by Government decree is impossible by any other method than the Government assumption of all industries, in order that prices to consumers may be kept at least equal to cost of production, or the deficit made up by some form of taxation. William Z. Ripley supports the President's plans for Government regulation of freight rates, emphasizing at the close of his argument the alleged necessity for such regulation as the only practicable means of forestalling the more radical measure of Government ownership. To many, however, rate regulation by Government order seems rather an entering wedge, likely to open the way to still more forcible assaults in the interest of public ownership. Colonel Higginson writes of "the cowardice of culture," which is always fearful of evil to come from the possession of power by the many. There has been no time in our independent history, he thinks, when it would not have been a calamity rather than a blessing to have been ruled by our highly educated men alone.

—A tenth volume has been added to the great Index Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office at Washington. It opens with the letter M—anonymous authors' initial, sometimes revealed—and closes with Mnikhovski. *Medicine*, as might have been expected, outranks in bulk all other titles, and fills 280 pages, or as nearly as may be 30 per cent. of the total. Here, as under *Materia Medica*, the recent acquisitions include not a few works published in the sixteenth century; and four such are to be found also under *Magic*. *Man*, *Massage*, *Mastoid*, *Measles*, *Meat*, *Meningitis*, *Milk* (43 pages), and *Marriage* too are very full, and under the last head we find in 1673 a pre-Darwinian vindication of the union of cousins-german. Malthusianism appears to have lost none of its interest, judging from the nineteenth and twentieth-century works here catalogued. An admirable utility of this index, as well as of the collection, is seen in the case of Sir Morell Mackenzie's treatise on 'The Hygiene of the Vocal Organs,' of which the English edition is immediately followed by a display of versions in German, Swedish, Spanish, Dutch, and French. This is a chapter of literary history. For a *cause célèbre* we are indebted to Mrs. Maybrick. Lombroso furnishes the psychopathology of Alessandro Manzoni, and McKinley's case is technically treated in a large number of instances, preceded by a memorial discourse. Among unexpected constituents we notice Richard Madden's 'History of Irish Periodical Literature,' together with sale catalogues of his library and his art relics; and J. C. Merrill's 'Notes on the Ornithology of Southern Texas,' and his posthumous library catalogue. It is noteworthy that, letter for letter, this second series of the Catalogue is one volume ahead of the first.

—Our Minister to Switzerland, Dr. David Jayne Hill, takes diplomacy very seriously. He purposes tracing its history, in six volumes, from the time of the Roman fecials to the present. The attempt is ambitious, but, to judge from the first volume, 'A History of Diplomacy in the International Development of Europe' (Longmans, Green & Co.), hardly likely to prove successful. A history of international law, or of international relations, affords a promising subject, but that of diplomacy, closely defined as it is here, has a fatal weakness. Mr. Hill says in his preface: "A history of diplomacy properly includes not only an account of the progress of international intercourse, but an exposition of the motives by which it has been inspired and the results which it has accomplished." Now to the present reviewer this appears to be the precise contrary of the truth, for it is the history of international intercourse that includes the history of diplomacy, and not the less that includes the greater, as Mr. Hill would have us think. The greatest statesmen—Bismarck, Cromwell, Cavour—have overridden diplomacy rather than been diplomats. Politics in its highest aspects transcends diplomacy, and the historian who selects the lesser field for specialized treatment is thereby reduced to the least pregnant issues. It is perhaps unfair to conclude against Mr. Hill at this stage, and he should be given grace until he reaches, in a subsequent volume, the year 1648, his real starting-point. For the present it will suffice to say that in his first volume, coming down to the year 1250, he merely restates, and not with the hand of a practised mediævalist, a great deal that was in no need of such repetition.

—Mr. W. Morton Fullerton's 'Terres Françaises' (Paris: Armand Colin) is a study in the topology of provincial France. Like M. Bérard, who coined this useful word, Mr. Fullerton is more interested in discussing why a town or an abbey or a castle is here or there than in describing it; that can be left to the mere topographer. His volume contains an account of three tours made in Burgundy, Franche-Comté, and the Narbonnaise. The topologist is really only the intelligent historian under a new name, and so Mr. Fullerton, as he travelled leisurely through the French provinces, saw under the provincial town, of a dulness proportionate to its distance from Paris, the Gallic *oppidum*, and thought more of Hannibal and Vercingetorix than of Bismarck. Bibracte, the Acropolis of the Ædui, the modern Mont Beuvray, roused in him more enthusiasm than any cathedral or abbey in these rather dreary little towns, whose whole interest often seems to centre in their church. The French, he thinks, would do well to devote to their own origins and the local history of their provinces some of the attention that they lavish on Greek excavations. Here is an American making a pilgrimage, with all the sensations of a pilgrim, to the Æduan remains, while the average Frenchman knows more about the discoveries of the French School at Delphi than of the site of the first national assembly of the Gauls at Mont Beuvray. "Une telle montagne, au delà du Rhin, aurait été il y a longtemps consacrée par un discours dithyrambique de l'Empereur, acclamant, aux applaudissements de toutes les tribus germaines, le palladium de la race." With a dithyrambic Emperor, anything may happen, but we doubt whether the French are more indifferent than other nations as to their origins. It is America that furnishes all the reverential historical pilgrims of our day. At the birthplace or the home of every famous man, at the site of every great event, you will find as part of the scenery a well-informed American deploring the ignorance and indifference of the direct heirs of those traditions. Mr. Fullerton dreams of some French Cecil Rhodes who, with what we may call an inverse ambition, shall send the youth of Paris into the provinces to learn how France has become a nation. His meditations on the past of provincial France are interesting enough, and should be in the hands of all who take the same road. But even the French public which he has chosen to address can hardly know its provincial geography as thoroughly as he assumes. In a future edition, therefore, let him provide a map.

TWO SOUTHERNERS ON THEIR PROBLEMS.

The Color Line: A Brief in Behalf of the Unborn. By William Benjamin Smith. McClure, Phillips & Co. 1905.

The Negro: The Southerner's Problem. By Thomas Nelson Page. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1904.

A few years ago a lack of positive and systematic information about, or discussion of, the negro problem made it one of great difficulty to all investigators. During and after the Reconstruction period, there was a crop of books like those of Andrews, Chamberlain, and Pike, which, with many allowances for prepossessions, were at least

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mémoires pour servir. Then there was a long interlude without any searching or thoughtful works; now the difficulty is to see the forest for the trees. Half a dozen volumes have recently appeared, illustrating all the points of view, from the old-fashioned-"Cursed be Canaan" to the bitter and heartrending cry of the most highly sensitive negro.

Of these various works, two of the most recent are Mr. Page's and Professor Smith's, which may well be considered together because they represent the great truth that equally honest and candid Southern men may stand in different attitudes towards their negro brethren. Professor Smith, who is by profession a mathematician, and who inclines throughout his book to make use of statistical arguments, returns to a good old-fashioned plea which was more in vogue about the time he was born than it is to-day. His fundamental postulate is that the negro is racially inferior to the white man; that he is not simply inferior in degree, but in kind, and that the inferiority is absolutely not to be overcome. This method is really the most logical of the numerous lines of argument in behalf of slavery, for it sweeps away altogether the uncomfortable theory of the natural equality of men, to a large degree disposes of the arguments from Christianity, and goes far to minimize the inherent cruelty and despotism of slavery. If provable, it is an argument that not only justifies slavery, but now justifies any degree of political and social dependence which the white man thinks suitable and which does not run counter to the Constitution of the United States or the statutes against peonage. To support his argument, Professor Smith holds that the negro has made no progress in Africa; that in no time that we can foresee would he become the equal of the white man; that he contributes nothing to American civilization. He appeals to the theory of heredity as opposed to the influence of environment.

This course of argument is much disturbed by such phenomena as Du Bois and Washington, for whom the only explanation that fits the theory is that their gifts are those of white men; and this goes straight back into that paradox which paralyzed the pro-slavery argument, viz., that if a mulatto is white man enough to be great, he is no longer negro enough to be ignored. Professor Smith's main argument, however, is not derived from the intellectual powers or promise of any members of the negro race, so much as from an assumed physical and anatomical inferiority. At almost wearisome length he goes into the question of weight, stature, chest-girth, respiration, power of vision, etc., and to such physical characteristics as the length of the arm, projection of jaw, and cranial sutures. The positive evidence to which he refers is made up of a small number from the records of instances, and no scientific man would commit himself to the doctrine that the thesis could ever be proved or disproved from such narrow bases. The same may be said of Professor Smith's elaborate arguments that the negro is dying out because his birth-rate is diminishing; and, if the death-rate does not also diminish, the balance will eventually be against him. Considering that every decade shows an increase of millions in the negro race, the process of extermination seems not yet to have begun; and considering that, in almost every State and city in the Union, the last ten years (or even five years) of reliable statistics show a reduced rate of increase, it would seem that Professor Smith has simply struck one end of a general, and not a racial, phenomenon. In the present state of vital statistics, the farthest point apparently that can be reached on this subject is the generalization made by Professor Wilcox that the negro birth-rate is decreasing. It would not necessarily prove that he was less than a man if his total number were also decreasing.

All this discussion about the inferiority of the negro, however, is a means to an end with Professor Smith. He is attempting to show the awfulness of amalgamation, and, like most Southern writers upon that subject, he assures you on the one side that the negro is so far below the white that amalgamation is an unthinkable evil, and at the same time in many pages warns his countrymen that amalgamation is a positive danger. If there be a danger, it is because the white people of the South do not feel an innate superiority to the negro race—if the white race are permeated with race consciousness, there is no danger of amalgamation; yet Professor Smith says, "We must insist that the South in this tremendous battle for the race is fighting not for herself only, but for her sister North as well." At the same time Professor Smith insists that by illicit relations with a negro woman a white man "does not impair in any wise the dignity or integrity of his race; he may sin against himself and others, and even against his God; but not against the germ-plasma of his kind." From these arguments Professor Smith, of course, easily advances to the proposition that the reception of Booker Washington by the President of the United States was "an open proclamation from the housetops of society that the South is radically wrong, that no racial distinctions are valued in social life; . . . the unescapable result would be the mongrelization of the South."

The ultimate logic of Professor Smith's book is that since the negro is by nature so far below the level of the white man that he can never rise near it, the South is in danger of racial submersion, unless the Northern people will assist it by turning a cold shoulder socially upon all negroes, of renown or otherwise. The somewhat difficult crossing of the stream between the bases and the outcome of this argument is as skilfully performed by Professor Smith as circumstances will allow.

Thomas Nelson Page has given pleasure to thousands of his countrymen by his previous writings, and he brings to the problem a very different frame of mind: he has nothing to say of heels and shinbones, and much to urge of common interests between the two races. The chapters of his book are made up of articles written at different times for different periodicals, and with different objects in view; so that there is more or less reduplication and some lack of harmony between the different parts of the work; and, as a whole, it leaves upon the mind an impression of the great difficulty of the whole negro question, and of the lack of any positive programme or even happy suggestion for its solution. So far from setting the negroes apart as a race somewhere midway between beasts and men, Mr. Page regards it as unfortunate that the negroes themselves "have long regarded their race as a special species, to be considered from quite a special standpoint, judged by different standards"; and throughout he judges the progress of the negro substantially by a white man's standard. Nevertheless, he insists, as many Southern men do, that "Wherever the negroes and the Southern whites are let alone and are not affected by outside influences, they for the most part live in harmony"; and though he does not deny the right of Northern people to discuss the question, he plainly thinks their influence rather mischievous than otherwise; and he dwells more than most Southerners upon the natural good feeling between the races, especially after the end of the civil war. To his mind the main reason for the disturbance of that kindly relation was the bestowal of suffrage on the negroes, which he holds to have been entirely revengeful: "For this they took eight millions of the Caucasian race, a people which in their devotion and their self-sacrifice, in their transcendent vigor of intellect, their intrepid valor in the field, and their fortitude in defeat, had just elevated their race in the eyes of mankind, and placed them under the dominion of their former slaves." He recognizes the malign influence on the Northern mind of the vagrant laws of 1865; but he cannot forget, and no Southerner can, the disorder and profligacy of the Reconstruction governments. Nevertheless, so far from excluding the negro from the human race, he commends the present suffrage laws in the Southern States because they "will tend to break up the dense solidarity of the negroes, and will give the best among them . . . an opportunity to rise and range themselves in a class where they will be freed from the burden of the ignorant mass which weighs them down, and may form a better class to which the others may aspire." So far from holding the race incapable of improvement, he declares "that the negro has not behaved unnaturally; he has, indeed, in the main behaved well"; and elsewhere, "Unquestionably a certain proportion of the negro race has risen notably since the era of emancipation." Yet he is dissatisfied with the degree of progress, and doubts the estimate of the holdings of property by negroes—a doubt which must be shared by any one who carefully looks into the statistics. In other words, Mr. Page thinks that the upper stratum of negroes has improved a good deal, while the lower stratum may not have improved sensibly.

Of the "demonstrable inferiority of the negro race to the white race," Mr. Page is perfectly sure, and he thinks that the cases of high mental development can all be traced to the influence of whites; indeed, he goes so far as to say that "slavery, whatever its demerits, was not in its time the unmitigated evil it is fancied to have been. Its time has passed. No power could compel the South to have it back. But to the negro it was salvation." He is equally ready to say in regard to Secession that "the true and ultimate cause of the action of the South was her firm and unwavering adherence to the principle of self-government and her jealous devotion to her inalienable rights." Of the smaller

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capacity of the negro to take advantage of his opportunities as shown in the West Indies, in Liberia, and in the Northern States, Mr. Page makes much, and it would be hard to gainsay the force of his arguments. In one respect, however, Mr. Page thinks he sees positive deterioration, namely, in the loss of skilled trades, which he believes they enjoyed in slavery. There were undoubtedly slave carpenters and mechanics, and a few engineers, but all the evidence now obtainable seems to show that, except for blacksmiths and a few like plantation necessities, there were almost no skilled negro mechanics outside the towns in slavery times.

Professor Smith has no remedies to propose for the negro question except to keep the negro down; Mr. Page has several suggestions, few of which he is able to follow out to any practical application. Although he admits that the education of the negroes has been a disappointment to the South, he puts himself squarely upon the ground that "the alleged danger of the educated negro becoming a greater menace to the white than the uneducated is a bugaboo which will not stand the test of light. That this might be true if the white is allowed to remain uneducated, may readily be admitted," and he claims credit for the South for expenditures for negro education. Nevertheless, he ventures to hint that "a crusade against the South based on her attitude towards the negroes . . . might sweep away the last remnant of good feeling that remains, and with it every dollar raised by taxation on the property of the whites to educate the blacks." That is, although negro education is helping to solve the problem, the South may cut it off if its feelings are too much disturbed.

In three different places Mr. Page takes pains to point out the absolute impossibility of the deportation of the negro—a remedy which is still often put forward by Southern writers. Any remedy, Mr. Page says, must be "one that will commend itself to the body of the intelligent whites at the South." The question must be taken out of politics. Any solution must recognize the different classes of negroes, and the negroes themselves must give up their feeling of solidarity. Both races must be raised simultaneously. The North must keep out of the attempt to help the South solve the problem. All these generalities do not bring us any nearer to the solution of the problem. In fact, the only positive suggestion in Mr. Page's book, other than that of continuing education, is "for a reasonably limited number of representative Southern men to meet in conference a reasonable number of those colored men in the South who are more familiar with the actual conditions there, and thus are representative of the most enlightened and experienced portion of that race."

Mr. Page's book is honest, kindly, and, barring a few extravagances, moderate; but the reviewer lays it down in the same disappointed frame of mind as the English squire who tried to get drunk on port, and, after the fourth bottle, remarked, "But I don't seem to get no forrarder."

BABYLONIAN EVIL SPIRITS AND INCANTATIONS.

The Devils and Evil Spirits of Babylonia: Being Babylonian and Assyrian Incantations against the Demons, Ghouls, Vampires, Hobgoblins, Ghosts and Kindred Evil Spirits which Attack Mankind. Translated from the original Cuneiform texts, with transliterations, vocabulary, notes, etc., by R. Campbell Thompson, M.A. Vol. II. "Fever Sickness" and "Headache," etc. London: Luzac & Co. 1904. Pp. liv., 179.

The first volume of Mr. Thompson's 'Devils and Evil Spirits' (reviewed in these columns nearly two years ago) dealt with evil spirit texts as such. The present volume contains the texts of charms for the cure of *Asakku*, which Mr. Thompson translates tentatively 'fever,' and 'headache,' a series of miscellaneous texts of charms for driving out various diseases, a group of texts called *Luh-ka*, translated tentatively 'cleansing the mouth,' and supposed to be intended for use in restoring purity to those who have broken the ceremonial laws and thus incurred the punishment of disease, and a little group of texts describing certain supernatural beings whom Mr. Thompson supposes to be akin to the Arabic jinn. While the distinction between disease tablets and evil-spirit tablets is not well defined and the charms and incantations in both cases are substantially the same, it being supposed that every disease is caused by demoniac possession, nevertheless the distinction made in the titles of the two volumes is justified from the texts themselves. Compare, for instance, the differentiation of fever and disease from demoniacal possession in this incantation from the fever series (p. 29):

"Fever unto the man, against his head, hath drawn nigh,
Disease unto the man, against his life, hath drawn nigh,
An evil Spirit against his neck hath drawn nigh,
An evil Demon against his breast hath drawn nigh,
An evil Ghost against his belly hath drawn nigh,
An evil Devil against his hand hath drawn nigh,
An evil God against his foot hath drawn nigh,
These seven together have seized upon him,
His body like a consuming fire they devour(?)"

The texts in this volume were originally written in Sumerian, but almost all of them are furnished with a Semitic-Assyrian interlinear translation. With a few exceptions they came from the library of Ashurbanipal at Nineveh, but various references to Ea and Eridu show that they were originally derived from Eridu. The principle of sympathetic magic is on the whole somewhat more pronounced in the tablets of this volume than in those published in Volume I. The sucking pig and virgin kid play an important part in the remedies. The pig or kid is to be killed, cut up, and placed upon the sick man. The heart of the pig, which has been placed upon the sick man's heart, is to be held by him, and the pig's heart is to be as his heart, the blood as his blood, the flesh as his flesh, and the pig is to be in his stead. The virgin kid is dealt with in the same way. Each was placed upon the sick man with a repetition of "the incantation of the deep of Eridu." Another method of sympathetic magic represented in these tablets is the preparation of a figure of the sick man in clay or some similar substance, which figure is then placed upon his loins and the evil spirit charmed into it. The pig or kid or image in which the spirit of disease is thus induced is then destroyed or cast away.

In his introduction Mr. Thompson calls attention to the New Testament miracle of exorcising the evil spirits into the herd of swine, which are then destroyed in the Sea of Galilee, and suggests a parallelism of ideas between this miracle and the charm of the sucking pig. This may seem somewhat forced, but it is a fact that New Testament ideas and even expressions with regard to possession by demons are at times parallel to the expressions and ideas contained in these Sumerian magical texts. As pointed out in the introduction to the first volume, Sumerian magic, which was a well-developed system at the time when the Babylonian-Semites entered the land, not only was adopted by them but also affected the whole of Hither Asia, and passed over thence into Europe. This does not mean that other peoples did not have somewhat similar conceptions of disease as occasioned by evil spirits and the like, but that the formulated and developed system of the Sumerians was so much in advance of their crude and undeveloped thought that it was in general adopted by them, so that Sumerian magic may be said to be the parent of the magical systems of Syria and the West.

This little fragment (p. 27) of an incantation, by which a demon is to be driven back to the desert, accords with a common conception which we meet in the New Testament, the Old Testament, and generally in Oriental folklore, of the place of abode of evil spirits:

"O evil Spirit! To thy desert!
O evil Demon! To thy desert!
O evil Ghost! To thy desert!
O evil Devil! To thy desert!"

The incantations are regularly cast in poetic form, and sometimes the description of the disease and its working is highly dramatic and impressive (p. 11):

"The evil Fever hath come like a deluge, and
Girt with dread brilliance it filleth the broad earth,
Enveloped in terror it casteth fear abroad;
It roameth through the street, it is let loose in the road;
It standeth beside a man, yet none can see it,
It sitteth beside a man, yet none can [see it].
When it entereth the house its appearance is unknown,
When it goeth forth from the house it is not perceived."

In his introduction Mr. Thompson calls attention to the great importance of the *name* in this system of magic, and in fact in magical systems in general. The name of the disease and of the demon which caused the disease must be pronounced, and also the name of a good spirit or deity strong enough to overcome the evil spirit which has possessed the patient. External appliances and charms are not of themselves effective, but only in connection with the proper use of the *name*. It is for this reason that he who applies the incantation must commence with some statement showing that he acts in the name of a god. In the Eridu tablets, Ea and his son Marduk are the names of power, and the common introductory formula, usually indicated by a few catchwords only, relates how Marduk saw the sick man and went to Ea, etc. The evil spirit is likewise sometimes identified by a story, as in the legend of the worm that causes toothache by feeding on the gums, which is meant to show

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that the person making the incantation knows the cause of the disease. Often a considerable number of names of evil spirits or kinds of evil spirits are used, so that the right one may surely be mentioned, it being impossible in many cases to determine precisely the cause of the evil. Mr. Thompson points out that this idea of the compelling power over demons of the holy name was taken up into Jewish and Christian magic, so that the exorcisms of the mediæval monks were the same in principle as the charms and incantations of the old Sumerians. He might have pointed out more distinctly how early this commenced in Christian practice, as shown by the emphasis laid by the writer of the Acts of the Apostles on the fact that demons were conjured and disease healed by the name of Jesus.

Mr. Thompson points out further that there was something of the nature of taboo (he prefers to write it *tapu*) among the Sumerians and their Semitic successors. The breach of ceremonial laws, of which the sinner might not himself be conscious, brought upon him calamity in the form of disease, and to remove this calamity atonement must be made to appease the offended gods or spirits. The word used for atonement is *kuppuru*, the equivalent of the Hebrew *kipper*, which latter word Mr. Thompson thinks was taken over by the Jews from the Babylonians at the time of the Captivity. He mentions some forms of atonement for taboo in the Hebrew Levitical law (p. li.):

"A woman after childbirth (Lev. xii., 2 ff.).
"A person touching anything unclean (Lev. v., 2 ff.).
"A man or woman with an issue, or similar uncleanness (Lev. xv., 2 ff.).
"A Nazarite defiled by touching a dead body (Numb. vi.).
"Leprosy, and the house wherein leprosy breaks out" (Numb. xiv., 18, 53)";

but he fails to cite or apparently to appreciate the much more strikingly parallel Hebrew laws of atonement for unknown trespass contained in the fourth, fifth, and sixth chapters of Leviticus. The theory of those laws is that if any calamity, sickness, disease, or the like come upon a man, it is due to some breach of law, ceremonial or moral (to make a modern distinction), witting or unwitting; and the disease or calamity was removed only by atonement. The general principle underlying these laws is identical with that represented in the incantations dealing with the *mamit* or ban which has fallen upon a man (p. 119):

"Ban! Ban! Barrier that none can pass,
Barrier of the gods that none may break,
Barrier of heaven and earth that none can change,
Which no god may annul,
Nor god nor man can loose,
A snare without escape, set for evil,
A net whence none can issue forth, spread for evil."

The nature of the transgressions which cause the evil in both the Sumerian and the Jewish codes is well set forth in the following (pp. 137 f.):

"While he walked in the street,
. . . while he walked in the street,
While he made his way through the broad places,
While he walked along the streets and ways,
He trod in some libation that had been poured forth, or
He put his foot in some unclean water,
Or cast his eye on the water of unswashen hands,
Or came in contact with a woman of unclean hands,
Or glanced at a maid with unwashed hands,
Or his hand touched a bewitched woman,
Or he came in contact with a man of unclean hands,
Or saw one with unwashen hands,
Or his hand touched one of unclean body."

Mr. Thompson's suggestion that the Jewish law of atonement was derived from Babylonia at the time of the Captivity is, we believe, incorrect. While the original connection of the two is clear, the differences in detail are too great to admit of this direct derivation. The relation of the two is rather the same as that of the Babylonian and Hebrew stories of the Flood, secondary, not primary.

The close of the incantation of the ban, quoted above, is interesting as illustrating the use of the magical bowl. After the introduction, already cited, this incantation seeks to cover the ground of the particular affliction for which the remedy is to be applied, whether caused by evil spirit, evil demon, evil ghost, etc.—may he be caught in the snare of Ea, closed in a dwelling from which he cannot get out, and the like—ending with this definite statement (p. 125): "With a bason without opening may they cover it." Now this is precisely the method of exorcism or banning of evil spirits practised by the Jews in Babylonia, as shown by recent excavations. Great numbers of bowls have been found inscribed within with incantations, generally in Jewish script, against evil spirits, and sometimes with demon figures. These bowls were placed on the floors of the houses, mouth down, for the purpose of imprisoning the evil spirit, who otherwise would have injured the occupants.

Most curious is the little series of tablets to which Mr. Thompson refers in his preface as containing descriptions of a number of supernatural beings. The first contains a precise description of a little clay figure of a woman, naked from the waist up, suckling a babe on her left breast, of which great numbers have been found in Babylonian explorations. After describing the little figure accurately, the tablet closes with the words: "Her name is Nin-tu, a form of the Goddess Mah" (p. 149). This is the mother goddess to whom, Mr. Thompson suggests, barren women made votive offerings in the hope of receiving offspring. The other descriptions are not so readily identifiable, and the purpose of the whole series is by no means plain. Possibly figures of all these demons were offered as votives for certain purposes. That charm tablets were themselves offered as votives to the gods is shown by the inscription on the reverse of one such charm, which recites that it was presented as a votive offering to Nabu; whether to secure his interference, or because this incantation used in his name had wrought a cure, is not clear.

We notice occasional unnecessary repetitions: precisely the same account of the use of the young pig, virgin kid, etc., is given in both volumes, and the extremely interesting and curious legend of the worm a translation of which was given in the introduction of the first volume, appears with text, translation, and photographic plate at the close of the second volume. The texts are printed on one page in Roman transliteration, and on the opposite page appears the translation. There are a few footnotes, one of which informs us that a certain tablet was written in the 129th year of the Seleucidan era, that is, 183 B. C. (p. 63). Evidently these incantations continued to be used in the original Sumerian tongue centuries after it had become a dead language, the language itself having a mystical value like Latin in the Middle Ages. The Semitic interlinear translations indicate a scientific and scholarly interest of the learned class in the actual meaning of the words of the charm. That the original sense had in some cases been lost when they were made is clear from the imperfections of the translations.

The second volume closes with a brief vocabulary of selected words from the texts, the translation of which is still in a somewhat tentative condition. The work is a welcome and valuable addition to our knowledge of the evil spirit lore of Babylonia, which was an integral and perhaps the most essential part of its practical religious system.

History of Ancient Pottery, Greek, Etruscan, and Roman. By H. B. Walters, M.A., F.S.A. Based on the work of Samuel Birch. In two volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1905. Pp. xxxvi., 504; xiv., 583.

The preface of this book relates very briefly the steps in the study of ancient pottery which have made possible so extensive and so elaborate a work. Samuel Birch, of the British Museum, published long ago his invaluable and very original work. There was nothing like it—there never has been anything like it. It was republished in a much enlarged edition in 1873, just in time to help us in America when we were compelled to receive and study in haste the extraordinary collections brought from Cyprus. That was the last edition of Birch's book; and he, a very old man, did not try to carry it to later editions or to incorporate with it, in other forms, any record of the remarkable advances made from year to year in the knowledge of the subject. Neither did any other writer take up his task. There are, of course, huge and costly books devoted to the illustration of Greek vases, and the Germans have taken the lead in this, as in so many kindred subjects. The catalogues of certain museums are of vast importance in the study, and contain a deal of very closely packed though unclassified information. The English enthusiasts for purity in art have studied the figure-drawing and painting on the vases, in minute detail. No part of all this production has tended to replace in any way the epoch-making work of Samuel Birch, so that now, when it becomes possible to publish a new edition, it is found that, even after certain branches of the subject have been separated from it—left for future treatment—the book is enlarged to nearly twice the size of even the latest edition of Birch's volume. This work has been done by Henry B. Walters, an assistant keeper of Greek and Roman antiquities in the British Museum, a university prizeman, and the author of special catalogues and (as stated in 'Who's Who') of a so-called 'Little Book on Greek Art,' which has not come our way.

Now what are the deletions? What is it that has been omitted from the programme as arranged by Birch? It is all that is not Greek nor Greco-Italian. Egyp-

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tian pottery, ancient Oriental pottery such as that from Mesopotamia and Syria, and the "pottery of the Celts and of Northern Europe," have been left out of the new work. We have, then, in the two volumes, seventeen chapters devoted to Greek vases and their decoration, and one chapter devoted to "Etruscan and South Italian pottery"; five chapters on Roman pottery, by which is meant the pottery of Italy under the Roman rule; and, finally, brief mention of earthenware found in Britain, Gaul, and Germany, but evidently of the Roman Imperial epoch.

There are thus three times as many pages devoted to Greco-Roman ceramic ware as were found necessary in even an exhaustive treatise of thirty years ago. This comes of a really prodigious advance in the amount of accumulated knowledge and in the variety and thoroughness of the philosophical examination of the subject. The preface to this book states the case in these words: "For the historical account of vase-painting in Birch's second edition one chapter of forty pages sufficed; it now extends to six chapters." A similar increase in the space occupied is found in the matter of the pictorial subjects with which the vases are adorned. Nothing remains nearly as it was thirty years ago except Part I., occupying the first five chapters of the first volume, and dealing with the technical part of the subject. Even there, however, the chapter concerned with the sites and circumstances of discovery is very largely new, as indeed it had to be. Even where nothing was to be added as to the place of discovery, there is still much to say about the conditions of discovery and the conditions of preservation—the shapes and distributions of the tombs in which vases were found, and more especially the conditions and the nature of terra-cotta statuary and members of architectural compositions.

With the enlargement of the text, there has come a great increase in the number of illustrations. There are now 69 plates, and many are in color—that is to say, in the red and black made necessary for the proper showing off of painted vases. The rest are half-tone pictures, exhibiting chiefly the forms of vases, though the painted figures and ornaments are still intelligible in their black-and-white reproduction. There are, moreover, 250 text illustrations, giving forms and patterns more roughly but still with an approximation to accuracy. Some of them are the wood-cuts of the former editions; others are rough and slight photographic renderings, well enough adapted to explain the text.

We have spoken hitherto as if painted vases formed the chief subject of the book. Of course, they take up the greatest number of pages; and indeed it is disappointing to find that very little more space is given to the statuettes found at Tanagra, in Sicily and in Syria, than was given in the old book of thirty years ago. On the other hand, the discussion of Roman and Roman-provincial statuettes and reliefs of terra-cotta is most interesting, and appears to be very complete. The reader is reminded of the great interest which has been shown of late years in the study of those reliefs in stucco which adorn the walls and stone vaults of buildings discovered or explored in recent times in Rome and in the neighborhood of the city. The terra-cotta reliefs mentioned in this book are often of kindred artistic interest. Thus, the two reliefs shown in Plate LXI., representing the one the dance of the Curetes around the infant Zeus, according to the Cretan legend, and the other a similar story of divine infancy, "Dionysos in the Liknon-Cradle" (that is to say, in the winnowing basket associated with his worship), and attended by a faun and a menad, are interesting quite beyond the ordinary range of fragments of late classical art because the material, the low relief, and the scale of the work all agree so perfectly with the daring, the even extravagant character of the design. So, in Plate LXII., are given reliefs of the youthful Theseus lifting the rock, and a group of priestesses with their sacred utensils, in which sculptures a somewhat graver and more restrained method of design has been used with equal freshness and vigor of modelling. The conclusions drawn by intelligent archæologists during the last ten years with reference to the semi-independent nature of Augustan-Roman art—an art Greek only in its ultimate origin, and separated in the details of its conception by a whole world of time and conditions from Greek art of the central age—are borne out by these plates and by the discussion, fifty pages long, which accompanies them. The chapter on Roman lamps which follows is, although of less interest to the art student, of great importance to the investigator of ancient sociology.

Still, however, Greek vases are the central theme. The supreme importance of this subject in modern opinion is exemplified by the bibliography, of which Part II. is devoted to vases alone and excludes, of course, references to periodicals. This Part II. is of twelve and a half pages, and contains therefore nearly 300 titles; and it need hardly be suggested that these are all works of accepted authority, the slighter and more popular manuals being neglected. The fact is, that Greek vases have always attracted the most earnest study of thinkers of various classes. The archæologist pure and simple finds in them an endless, a simply inexhaustible subject of theory and speculation, and a series of dogmas upon which he can base those conclusions which are styled "facts" in an historical sense—facts until their certainty is called in question. The student of manners and of costume finds an inexhaustible subject of investigation in the outline drawings and the paintings in red and black upon their swelling sides. The student of Greek poetry and legend has an unending source of wonder and cause of close thought and inquiry in the scenes represented, which may be "Homeric" or from legends earlier than Homer, and which again may be based upon versions of the Greek fable that have perished altogether or have left no detailed record behind. There is, too, the constantly recurring question as to the universality of the stories as we have them in those works of Grecian literature which have survived. Was it in that way that all Greek-speaking people of all the Mediterranean lands which they inhabited thought of the legends in question? And, finally, the artist's interest in the Greek vase-painting is infinite and most varied, because, while the decorative quality of the pieces is not pre-eminently great, and while a room adorned with the finest pottery of Attica is, after all, not made brilliant by its contents, yet the pieces taken separately in the hand convey to the student the loftiest and most stimulating lessons in the way of storied art applied to decorative purpose.

Musical Studies. By Ernest Newman. John Lane. 1905.

A great change has come over the spirit of English musical criticism in the last decade or two. Before the nineties there were able writers in London, but even those who, like Dr. Hueffer, saw that there was something in music besides Handel, Beethoven, and Mendelssohn, never dared to lay rough hands on the old idols. Then came some men who, like naughty boys in school, threw paper balls at everybody and everything. They did no harm, but actually achieved some good by forcibly calling attention to the fact that some of the old things might be bad and some of the new ones good. Another type of the present-day criticism is personified in Mr. Ernest Newman, who, while always preserving his dignity, does not hesitate to speak out his mind freely in regard to both the older and the younger masters; to refer, for instance, to "Beethoven's nonsensical remark about the Pastoral Symphony being 'more the expression of feeling than painting,'" on the one hand, and on the other to rebuke his own countrymen by remarking, with reference to the "Margaret" movement of Liszt's "Faust" symphony: "In face of this divine piece of music alone the present neglect of Liszt's work in England is something inexplicable."

Mr. Newman also ventures to fly in the face of public opinion with a few pages of very depreciative remarks on Gounod's "Faust." Here he is decidedly in error. Whatever the faults of what is, after "Carmen," the best opera ever written outside of Germany (unless Verdi's "Aïda" be excepted), it has the divine gift of melody; and it is the almost utter lack of this gift that will make Mr. Newman's particular idol of the moment, Richard Strauss, an ephemeral figure on the musical stage. The essay, in the present volume, on this maker of megatherian tone-poems would be more amazing had it not been preceded by a similar panegyric in this country, waggishly perpetrated by Mr. James Huneker, who is noted for his virtuosity in paradox and self-contradiction, and who has already lowered his admiration of Strauss several pegs. Mr. Newman attributes to Strauss pretty nearly everything except the creation of the world. He is "a master of orchestral effect such as the world had never seen"; he "stands proudly, loftily alone, unique among musicians"; he has been "unconsciously evolving a musical bias that was to remould the æsthetics of music"; he "appears to be wildly artificial because he is absolutely natural"; he is "the destroyer of . . . . all previous values, ... the creator at once of a new expression and a new form"; he has shown that the symphonic poem is the real music of the future, and will bring about "the ultimate passing away" of the opera; he has emancipated music "from the tyranny of the voice"; he is the first who has sufficiently appreciated "the astringent quality of the discord"; he is "the first complete realist in music"; he makes "one ask one's self whether it is

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possible for music to develop farther than this." This, and much more of the same sort, Mr. Newman tells his amused and incredulous readers, most of whom, in all probability, see in R. Strauss nothing more than an unbalanced, extravagant imitator of Berlioz and Liszt, who has added absolutely nothing new to musical form, and very little of value to its substance; whose orchestration is far inferior in sensuous charm and emotional warmth to that of Johann Strauss, Dvorák, Tchaikovsky, Grieg; and who is also vastly behind these men and other contemporary musicians in the capacity of creating new melodies, which decides the ultimate rank of composers.

Oddly enough, in the last seven pages of his book, an appendix to the Strauss essay, Mr. Newman seems to have suddenly discovered that his idol is, after all, stuffed with sawdust. This appendix is concerned with Strauss's latest work, the "Domestic Symphony," which had its first performance in New York. Nearly all of its composer's German admirers consider it his master-work, and it is certainly quite as good as any of its predecessors; yet our author takes it to be "the work of an enormously clever man, who was once a genius." To his mind, there is "not a memorable theme in it"; and, concerning the man who, on p. 259, was the "wielder of the mightiest orchestral language ever yet spoken," we are told frankly (on p. 301) that he "wants to wear all the clothes in his wardrobe at once," his work being "grossly overscored, a good third of the notes being perfectly superfluous." As for his "remoulding the æsthetics of music," there is, in truth, "a strain of foolishness in Strauss, that always prompts him to go through the heavy farce of mystifying his hearers at first" by saying he wants his new work to be taken as absolute music, yet giving a few words of the clue to his literary scheme to-day, and a few more to-morrow, until the story is complete. In the case of the "Domestic," he has "thought it worth while to put about a hundred people to a great deal of trouble and expense in order to suggest the imbecile spectacle of a baby shrieking in its bath; and I think it is time the world protested against so much of its leisure and its funds being taken up with sheer inanities of this kind." Verily, Mr. Newman's postscript is the most important thing in his letter.

In the other essays of this volume we find our author much more sane and satisfactory, and less self-contradictory. We were not particularly interested in his attempt to trace "a curious similarity between the æsthetic systems" of Wagner and Maeterlinck; but his chapter on "Herbert Spencer and the Origin of Music" is a notable specimen of brilliant dialectics, which leaves that philosopher (who should never have ventured into a field in which his ignorance was so dense) floundering in the mire. Mr. Newman's contention is that "music has its origin, not in speech, but in the venting of vague emotion in mere vague sounds." Better still than his demolition of Spencer are the two longest section of his book, which are concerned with Berlioz and with Programme Music. He fails, indeed, to prove that Berlioz belongs in the first rank of composers (for that, his melodic faculty was too weak), but he does much to correct the popular misconception of that interesting Frenchman as a volcano that was perpetually in a stage of eruption; giving a list of his works, with brief characterizations of them, to show how few of them deserve the epithet of "extravagant." He admits that the last thirty years of Berlioz's life were a failure to redeem the promise of his first period, and his theory regarding this is that he was overflowing with ideas in his younger days, and that there was a gradual failure of them in his latest years, owing to the terrible physicial tortures he endured from his intestinal neuralgia and the large quantities of morphia he had to take to still his pangs.

The essay on Programme Music is unquestionably the most lucid, original, and convincing discussion of that question ever printed. All those (their number is still considerable) who still fancy that music with a definite pictorial or literary substratum or programme is an illegitimate branch of the art, may have their brains cleared of cobwebs by reading this chapter. Whereas most of the older orchestral music of any value was absolute music, most of the later works of value come under the head of programme music; and the momentum of the latter species seems to be increasing every year. "One has only to take up a catalogue of the Russian, French, German, Belgian, American, or even English, music published during the last twenty years, to see how enormously this form of art has grown, and how the really big men all display a marked liking for it." We are very far from agreement with Mr. Newman in all of his ideas as to the reasons for this change or his forecast of the future—his strictures on the opera, in particular, are absurdly insular, and he fails to perceive that Liszt applied Wagner's principles to the symphony; but, on the whole, we must commend this chapter as a masterly specimen of original reasoning, rare in musical literature.

Metapsychical Phenomena, Methods, and Observations. By Dr. J. Maxwell, Translated by L. I. Finch, with a new chapter containing "a complex case," by Professor Richet, and an account of some recently observed phenomena by the Translator. London: Duckworth & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xiii., 448.

This is certainly one of the most remarkable contributions to the literature of "Psychical Research," and impressive enough to deserve, though hardly to need, the two prefaces with which two distinguished men of science have supported it—the one, by Prof. Charles Richet, the physiologist of the Paris Faculty of Medicine, and (with the book itself) translated from the French; the other, by the well-known physicist who presides over the University of Birmingham, Sir Oliver Lodge. The latter's introduction informs us that Dr. Maxwell was originally a lawyer, being indeed at present the Deputy Attorney-General of the Bordeaux Court of Appeal, who has for ten years devoted his leisure to the study of psychical phenomena, and, in order better to do so, studied medicine and proceeded to the doctorate. It is evident, therefore, that he possesses what would seem to be the ideal qualifications for the handling of a very perplexing and treacherous subject, while the book itself testifies further to his intelligence and literary ability. Now when a man of this calibre vouches for his personal observations of supernormal happenings, he may well expect to extort a moment's attention even from the most contentedly skeptical, and when his testimony is most calculated to stagger belief.

It would require a singularly open mind to accept Dr. Maxwell's conclusions at first hearing without reluctance. He has devoted special attention to what are known as "the physical phenomena of spiritualism," with the result that he practically rehabilitates the old-fashioned "raps" and table-turnings. These he has constantly observed under the most favorable conditions, in broad daylight and without contact. After experimenting with many mediums, private and professional, he seems recently to have discovered in a friend of his, a gentleman of scientific training, who is called "M. Meurice," a medium of singular power. Some of his performances—*e. g.*, in attracting light articles of furniture by "passes," and producing raps on an open umbrella which "look like drops of some invisible fluid falling on the silk" (p. 278)—are as extraordinary as anything recorded by the most credulous spiritists, and much better evidenced. For they were witnessed not only by Dr. Maxwell, but also by Professor Richet and a "Dr. X.," who is apparently too great a medical personage to compromise his name, and seem to have been well observed. This medium, in short, seems destined to accomplish for the "physical" phenomena much the same as Mrs. Piper has done for the "intellectual," and his feats are as difficult to account for on any hypothesis of fraud. It is earnestly to be hoped, therefore, that other men of science can be induced to avail themselves betimes of the unique opportunity of further testing this remarkable medium, and that in subsequent reports we shall be furnished, at least in some cases, with all the dry and precise details of the conditions of experiment, which Dr. Maxwell usually omits. He holds, rightly enough, that enough detail can never be given to silence the cavils of a sufficiently determined and ingenious skeptic. But, after all, there are minds less prejudiced who would like to judge reasonably for themselves of the adequacy of the precautions.

It should be noted further that, though Dr. Maxwell is, of course, quite familiar with the spiritistic interpretation of these strange phenomena, he is loth to accept it. He prefers to adopt the hypothesis of a physical nerve-force to account for the movements observed, and of a "general consciousness" to account for the intelligence displayed. But throughout he keeps theory discreetly in the background, and very candidly avows that not only with the regular mediums, but also with "M. Meurice," the phenomena spontaneously assumed a spiritistic form and tendency. Some, indeed, of the proofs of "spirit-identity" given him are very nearly as good as anything of the sort yet recorded. Finally, it should be said that, in spite of its size, Dr. Maxwell's book is eminently readable, although the translator has admitted a good many disfiguring gallicisms. An index was worth providing.

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Five Years in a Persian Town. By Napier Malcolm. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905. Pp xvi, 272. 12 illustrations.

The town is Yezd, and what we have is a description of Yezd, or, rather, of the people of Yezd, from a missionary's point of view. Mission work itself is kept in the background, but the attitude naturally remains. The description is good and wonderfully objective, considering that Mr. Malcolm has really attempted to express in intelligible formulæ the essentials of a racial and religious character which had worried and puzzled him. The strain of the worry shows; but he has worked out very fairly some general attitudes which command respect if not complete acquiescence —character is too full of incommensurables ever to permit finality. One of his most fertile ideas is the effect of environment—the desert, with its separated plants each in a hermit existence, the solitary village visible at a day's journey on the even plain, the uniform mountain range, an atmosphere which shows a wealth of isolated units but checks all coördination. It is not that you cannot see the wood for the trees; there are only trees but no wood. So he sums up thus :

"I think I am right in saying that it all points to the fact that the great difference between Persia and Europe is that the Persian tends to take things piecemeal, and the European to regard ideas in their relation to others. At the same time this is not always at once obvious. A European is firmly convinced of the value of scientific knowledge, and will decorate a man who has discovered all that there is to be discovered about a black beetle. Here the Persian will laugh at the European, as he also will when the European rewards highly extreme excellence in the practical trivialities of life. But it is obvious that these exceptions are more apparent than real. The Persian is like a man who has got a pair of glasses that give him a very clear view of a very small field of vision. He does not view things absolutely piecemeal, but he generally regards only a very small area at a time. A man who picks up shells with an idea of adding to the general store of human knowledge is to him an imbecile; but he is only willing to pay the same attention to an invention like Marconi's that he would to an improved hair-wash" (p. 163 f.).

Naturally, a five years' residence, while it destroys the traveller's keen sense for the strange, does not give that depth of familiarity which such an attempt as this demands. Thus, it is plain that Mr. Malcolm's studies in Muhammadanism as a faith and a science had not gone very deep; the chances would be high against his passing examination in theology or law. So we have the extraordinary statement that "the Mussulman does not pretend to know anything about the attributes of Deity" (p. 84); as a fact, Muhammadan theologians, always protecting themselves with the doctrine of God's essential "difference" from man, have entered upon the most elaborate catalogization of the divine attributes. The fundamental conception, too, of the *sunna*, the usage of Muhammad, has evidently not been thoroughly apprehended (pp. 73 ff., 124 ff.). A fuller appreciation of its habit-forming power and, still more, of its multiform and contradictory elements would have cleared up much. Similarly the question of motive or purpose in an action will be found at length in the canon-law of Islam and even, in criticism of its perversion, in the 'Arabian Nights' tale of Abu Niya and Abu Niyatain—he of one motive and he of two. But, for all that, the book fulfils its purpose excellently, and makes a fair guess at some Persian characteristics. The illustrations—photographs and reproductions of native paintings—are very good.

La Nature et la Vie. Par Henry de Varigny.. Paris: Armand Colin. 1905. 18mo, jésus, pp. 356.

Although it is the essential aim of physical science to explain phenomena without resort to any hypothesis of a direct action of mind upon matter (not but that mind *does* act on matter in any common-sense understanding of the phrase, of course), yet many of us are attracted to certain results of biological study with a quality of interest only to be accounted for as being grounded upon some vague hope of getting light from them upon the mystery of the life we feel within us. It is to such readers that M. de Varigny addresses himself. His nineteen chapters, arranged in seven parts, wear, in the table of contents, a vague air of consecutive thought; and precisely so they appear when one comes to read them. They are composed of anecdotal facts of natural history strung upon a thread of reason without which they would lose half their charm, which is very considerable. In the way neither of observation nor of reflection has M. de Varigny much to communicate that is original; but he tells us much that is recent, and tells it with scientific accuracy.

By simply chatting about a few fair specimens of the work, we shall best convey an idea of its quality. The first chapter discusses the question of how life first came upon the cooling earth. Throughout, the author abstains from explicitly laying down any conclusions. As the advertisement puts it, his pages "n'ont rien d'un traité didactique." But his statement of the evidences pretty nearly amount to acceptance of Kelvin's theory that life was imported upon an aerolite; and perhaps that is the best opinion in the present state of science, though for quite different reasons from these which Varigny commends. To begin with, the author admits, as scientific men mostly do, that Pasteur proved that there is no such thing as spontaneous generation. Yet Clifford demonstrated to the satisfaction of every competent logician that Pasteur only refuted a particular argument, and left the general question untouched. For the hypothesis of spontaneous generation is that, under a certain complex combination of circumstances which may occur in the whole mass of the ocean once in a hundred centuries or so, living protoplasm will be produced; and all that Pasteur did was to show that in certain flasks of broth—say one or two hundred litres in all—no life was produced in several months. If Clifford were to meet a person who thought this a sound inductive argument against the possibility of spontaneous generation (say, M. de Varigny), the following conversation might ensue:

Clifford—Suppose that a little over a century ago, when the possibility of aerolites was disputed, a man had carefully prepared a quarter of an acre of ground so that nothing could fall upon it undetected, and had closely watched it for a whole day and night without catching a single stone from the skies. Do you think that that would have amounted to solid proof that no aerolite could have fallen in any civilized country during the previous four hundred years? Or do you think it would have been an argument of only moderate value, or how should you esteem it?

Varigny—It would have been a silly performance because of the insignificance of the area and of the duration of the experiment as compared with four centuries.

Clifford—Yet, estimating the value of the argument on that principle, it is hundreds of times as strong as the inference from Pasteur's half barrel of broth to the million and a half millions of millions of tons of sea water and the thousands of centuries of time that are in question.

Varigny—Well, you must admit that Pasteur proved that nobody had ever observed spontaneous generation; and reduced it to the rank of a bare possibility, a mere fancy. Now do you mean to say that scientific men should give up their time to the examination of the host of fanciful things that the idle from time to time amuse themselves by believing in?

Clifford—No; but I think that to argue that because it is not wise for a scientific man to bother with a certain supposed phenomenon, therefore that phenomenon does not exist, is uncommonly bad reasoning.

The probabilities seem at present to be decidedly against the theory that life came upon the earth by spontaneous generation, not because if such a phenomenon were possible it ought to have shown itself in Pasteur's flasks during his weeks of experimentation, but, on the contrary, because, even if the event be possible, the whole mass of the sea and the whole time since the solar system was a nebula fall short by millions upon millions of multiples of being sufficient to render the requisite combination of circumstances probable. For we know, what was not known in Clifford's time, that a molecule of protoplasm is composed of thousands of atoms; and very likely thousands of molecules must concur to produce life. These atoms, too, must all be arranged in certain ways. It would seem, then, though we really know next to nothing about it, that for such a combination to occur by pure chance must require the fortuitous satisfaction of at least a hundred independent conditions. Now how rapidly can we imagine these conditions to be satisfied? If we suppose that in every single molecule of water they are satisfied as frequently as light vibrates, the probability of the fortuitous occurrence of one molecule of protoplasm in the mass of the sea in a million million centuries would be so small that one might call it a miracle. The merit of Kelvin's idea is that it opens our prison doors. We are no longer limited to this puddle of an ocean or to the twinkling of an eye that has elapsed since the solar system was a nebula, but have the whole vast universe of space and time to draw upon, in which it may be that living protoplasm was produced fortuitously in sufficient quantity to reproduce itself. M. de Varigny shows that there is no serious objection to Kelvin's theory. As it is sometimes stated, it seems to make life inexplicable; and that is the greatest logical sin an explanatory hypothesis can fall into. But the true effect of Kelvin's theory is to open a wider field of possibility.

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Among other entertaining chapters are those concerning an indispensable poison (carbonic acid and its effects upon climate), concerning the advantages of degeneration and concerning universal interdependence. In the last we learn that in New Zealand ill-managed lumbering spoiled the oysters, which were attacked by a parasitic worm that increased when more mud was washed down in the rivers. The penultimate part of the work is entitled "Ce que veut la Nature." This was inevitable. This crystallizes the interest which was in solution throughout. But biology, as M. de Varigny rightly says, "will have none of final causes at any price whatever." Now, then, can it tell us "ce que veut la Nature?" It can give no other answer than that which we read in 1852 in a little brown book republished by Ticknor. The *poet* ought to know "ce que veut la Nature." The man of science ought not to know; and if he does, it is surreptitiously.

The Ethics of Imperialism: An Enquiry whether Christian Ethics and Imperialism are Antagonistic. By Albert R. Carman. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co. 1905.

This is an inquiry into what the author calls the apparent quarrel between "some phases of the system of ethics" which Christians accept as a revelation from the Deity and "the spirit of Imperialism," accompanied by an attempt at a reconciliation. The nature of the difficulty is easy enough to state, and is set forth in the first chapter, called "The Paradox." Christian ethics are altruistic, and involve the brotherhood of man and nations. Imperialism is nationalist, and involves hostility between nations. The ethical system of the author is not that of Spencer, whom he criticises, but his own, and we confess that we do not fully understand it, and shall therefore refrain from attempting to restate it. But of one thing we feel very certain, that he has not succeeded in reconciling Christianity and Imperialism, for the simple reason that in practice they are irreconcilable. Christian ethics involves Peace on Earth wherever possible, and Imperialism involves War on Earth wherever advantageous, and hence there is no common ground for the two systems to rest upon. They can be made to coexist, as so many other things in a queer world can, by our sometimes behaving like Christians and sometimes like Imperialists. When we arbitrate national differences, or refuse to fight if not attacked, we act like Christians; when we get up wars for the sake of expansion or trade, we play the rôle of Imperialists. This is part of the inconsistency of human nature, which explains a great many things otherwise very difficult to understand.

Mr. Carman seems to us to labor under the delusion that his paradox can be got over by a *systematic* reconciliation of opposites both of which he believes (no doubt correctly) to be involved in the scheme of evolution. But this is too deep for any one but a philosopher. Evolution reconciles everything historically, but logical and moral difficulties remain what they were before; and, despite all Mr. Carman's acumen, the reader continues to feel that the "paradox" is unsolved, though it remains perfectly natural as a phenomenon of the human mind and conscience, deeply embedded in original perversity.

Betting and Gambling: A National Evil. Edited by S. Seebohm Rowntree. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This is a collection of papers by various hands, intended to set forth the present state of gambling and betting in England, as well as the measures of law designed to repress it, together with suggestions for their amendment. The point brought out with great distinctness is that, in the last fifty years, betting and gambling in England have, like so many other things, become democratized. Two generations ago they were still the vices of the upper classes; to-day, in England as elsewhere, they have spread throughout the whole community. Another point of importance, of which much shocking evidence is given in this volume, is that there is throughout the country a regular propaganda of gambling, through house-to-house solicitation. Not merely does the tout knock at the door of the industrious workman, and offer him opportunities of risking his money on chances of which he knows nothing, but, in the absence of the workman himself, the "runner" besieges the women of his family and leads them to stake earnings entrusted to them for household purposes. The chapter on "Gambling among Women" is full of sickening details of this sort, apparently amply vouched for by responsible witnesses.

When we come to the question of repression, great difficulties arise. Public gaming and betting may be suppressed, as the old "tables" in the Kursaals of Germany have been suppressed; betting may be legitimated and "elevated" by a system of licenses and inspection; but, to judge by this book, the main reliance must be in the long run on the enlightenment of the masses. A good chapter is that on "The Deluded Sportsman," contributed by a bookmaker, who shows very conclusively that the man who puts money on a horse against the professional invariably in the long run loses; this is the principle on which the business of bookmaking is founded.

The Declaration of Independence: An Interpretation and Analysis. By Herbert D. Friedenwald. The Macmillan Co. 1905. Pp. xii., 299.

Nothing in recent years has made so favorable a report as the work done in American history. A decade ago there was plenty of criticism of the "isolation" of our historical studies, cautious praise of the laudable awaking of interest, constant emphasis upon the insufficient and unsatisfactory output, with accompanying declaration that the value was distinctly out of proportion to the bulk. Those who were disposed to regret the barrenness of literature generally, had commended for consideration the activity shown in historical study and in economics, with the hope that, if the energy was intelligently devoted, one had the right to entertain high expectations. Slowly but surely we are beginning to see the growth of that "methodical, analytical, distrustful, not too respectful turn of mind which is often mystically called 'the critical sense,' but which is nothing else than an unconscious habit of criticism," to quote Seignobos.

The large body of young students who, ten years ago, entered enthusiastically upon the study of American history, are now beginning to produce the results of their labors, exhibiting a clearer perception of the facts and of the logic of history, in a better proportioned narrative; and eventually we may hope for some work of genuine historic art. In Mr. Friedenwald's book we have particular evidence of the harvest we are to reap. As a phase of the tendency to rewrite the old subject from a new point of view, this contribution to American history must be generously welcomed. It is an earnest of what we may expect from the author later, for he tells us that this preliminary study is in part but an abstract of a larger and more detailed work on the same subject. The significance of it lies in its offering a clearer picture of the development of the power of the Congress that produced the Declaration; of the interrelations of the growth of the power of Congress in strengthening the Union; of the democratic movements in the several colonies; and of the development of the sentiment of independence within and without the walls of Congress. It is the first attempt to give to the general reading public an adequate treatment of the period concerned, and within its compass it does what has been pressingly needed. Here we have knowledge kept within bounds, original authorities sifted and their pith extracted. Reading Mr. Friedenwald's essay will dispel the erroneous impression in regard to the supposed unanimity, or approach to unanimity, with which the Revolution was undertaken. It makes clear that the war was to be essentially a civil war—more so even than that of 1861-65; and emphasizes certain very important early phases of the struggle which have received scant consideration from those who have had much to do with framing public opinion.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alcott, Louisa M. Under the Lilacs.—Jack and Jill. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
American Jewish Year Book. Edited by Cyrus Adler and H. Szold. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Baker, M. N. Sewerage and Sewage Purification. D. Van Nostraud Co.
Banister, Corrilla. A Modern Miracle. The Grafton Press.
Beebe, C. William. Two Bird Lovers in Mexico. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3 net.
Bell, Malcolm. The Drawings of Sir Edward John Poynter. Scribners. $2.50 net.
Benson, J. P. The Woozlebeasts. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.
Bowne, Borden. The Immanence of God. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Brown, Abbie Farwell. The Star Jewels. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Burke's Speech on American Taxation. Edited by James H. Moffatt. Boston: Ginn & Co. 30 cents.
Burnett, Frances Hodgson. A Little Princess. Scribners. $2.
Cabell, James Branch. The Line of Love. Harpers. $2.
Campbell, Douglas H. The Structure and Development of Mosses and Ferns. Macmillan Co. $4.50.
Carey, Rosa N. The Household of Peter. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50.
Carnations and Pinks. Edited by E. T. Cook. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Chambers, Robert W. The Reckoning. Appleton. $1.50.
Clute, Willard N. The Fern Allies. F. A. Stokes Co.
Coman, Katharine. The Industrial History of the United States. Macmillan Co. $1.25.
Connolly, James B. The Deep Sea's Toll. Scribner's. $1.50.
Cook, Theodore A. Old Provence. 2 vols. Scribners. $4 net per set.
Cooper, Walter G. Fate of the Middle Classes. Consolidated Retail Booksellers. $1.25 net.
Cornes, James. Modern Housing in Town and Country. Scribners. $3 net.
Cowley's Poems. Edited by A. R. Waller. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan.

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Cox, Kenyon. Old Masters and New. New, illustrated ed. Fox, Duffield & Co. $2.50 net.
Crawford, Francis Marion. Southern Italy and Sicily and the Rulers of the South. Macmillan Co. $3 net.
Creed of Christ. John Lane Co.
Daring, Hope. The Appointed Day. Philadelphia: Am. Baptist Pub. Society. $1 net.
Diary of Samuel Pepys. Introduction by G. Gregory Smith. Macmillan Co. $1.75.
Dippold, George T. A German Grammar. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.10.
Drachman, Bernard. From the Heart of Israel. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Dunn, Martha Baker. Cicero in Maine. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Eno, Henry Lane. The Baglioni. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.25 net.
Fine, Henry Burchard. A College Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
FitzGerald, Edward. Euphranor. John Lane Co.
Flood, W. H. Grattan. The Story of the Harp. Scribners. $1.25 net.
Ford, Paul Leicester. His Version of It. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Fraser, W. A. The Sa'Zada Tales. Scribners. $2.
French, Allen. Heroes of Iceland. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Gibbons, Edward E. The Eye: Its Refraction and Diseases. Vol. II. Macmillan Co.
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